The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 12, 1893.

The Week.

THE Cincinnati *Enquirer* publishes an interview with Senator Sherman in which he expresses the opinion that, although the Silver Repeal bill has a decided majority in the Senate, it cannot be passed, and that it will be necessary to agree upon a compromise. The kind of compromise that he thinks could pass would be a reduction of silver purchases to 2,500,000 ounces per month, and the continuance of the same for three years. This would mean the payment of a bonus of about $65,200,000 to the silver mine-owners in order to get rid of the silver nightmare at the end of three years. The objections to this plan are exceedingly weighty, and are not wholly financial. It is doubtful, in the first place, whether such a compromise would relieve the tension in the business of the country. It would not do so without some visible means of strengthening the gold reserve in the Treasury, which is running down simply because its expenditures are greater than its receipts. Such a compromise would smash the Democratic party in the North; but naturally this would not be an objection in Senator Sherman's view. Such a compromise would not put an end to the contest over silver, but would merely intensify it and obscure other political issues. It would start a war against the Senate as a branch of government representing the rule of the minority, and would intensify and harden the contempt which the public now entertains for that body. It would put a stop to any legislation hereafter which should be very distasteful to as many as one-third of the members of the Senate, since their partisans throughout the country would insist that they should exhaust their powers before allowing an obnoxious measure to pass. This feeling would probably lead to a change in our form of government. The best thing to be done is to fight for unconditional repeal until the public sentiment of the country scares the anti-repealers into common decency.

If anything were needed to prove the absurdity of compromise on a basis of further silver purchases for three years, the situation of the Federal Treasury would be enough. It was early in June, during the first stress of panic, that the Treasury's gold reserve reached its lowest figure. It sank then to $89,578,363. The country was then treated to the humiliating spectacle of the Secretary of the Treasury advertising, arguing, and pleading with bank presidents to lend the Government gold; for that was precisely the meaning of an exchange of bank gold for United States notes. The banks responded more liberally than might have been expected, and the gold reserve, thus replenished, rose slowly again to a point above the $100,000,000 mark. The gold imports, which, while paper money was hoarded, were speedily used in ordinary payments, helped along the movement, and by August 10 the reserve had reached $103,873,290. Like most of the sudden gains of that month, this expansion was artificial and temporary. With the slackening of the gold-import movement, the Treasury gold reserve began again to decrease. Last Saturday it practically touched the minimum figure of June. On Monday it fell $1,000,000 below that figure, nor is there any reason to believe that the decrease, in existing circumstances, will be stopped. If gold exports were to be resumed—which in all probability would happen if unconditional repeal should fail—the shrinkage would be rapid.

In any case, unless confidence is very speedily restored through the Senate's vote, the loss can hardly fail to be continuous. Last year the heavy drain of gold for export purposes was partially made good by an active merchandise import trade. It was this which supplied the Treasury with currency on which to borrow bank gold in its time of need. To-day the whole Government revenue is under a paralysis. Customs and internal-tax receipts are smaller by two millions a week than in the corresponding weeks of 1892. Expenses are not diminished. Low as the Treasury stock of gold has run, the Government is forced to use that metal in its ordinary payments, and it has no longer other currency with which to purchase gold. Within two months the net available balance of all kinds of money has decreased $15,000,000. Within a week it has fallen $5,000,000. In the face of such conditions, the proposition to continue the disastrous drain of silver-bullion purchases is little short of madness. That some energetic measures will be necessary, in any case, to fill the Government's coffers, exhausted by the last administration's vicious legislation, is probably true. But it is hard to see what measures will suffice, if the nation's resources and credit are at once assailed by further persistence in the silver-purchase policy. With their good name once restored to the Treasury and the currency, means of relief will easily suggest themselves. Without such restoration, all that the Government can do will resemble only the frantic efforts of an embarrassed business concern to stave off bankruptcy.

One of the curious and memorable features of the obstruction in the Senate from which the country is now suffering is the obscurity and poor character of the leaders in it. Even if they were men of any political eminence or personal respectability in their respective communities, the public would be little disposed to put up, for any purpose whatever, with persistent attempts to prevent the will of the majority in a legislative body from being carried into effect. But one of the oddities of the present crisis is that they are not men of political or other eminence, and many of them are wanting even in personal respectability. Take the case of Senator Stewart, the head and front of the band. It is now seventeen years since he was shown by congressional investigation to be a dishonest lawyer and a conspirator in the Emma Mine case, which became famous in consequence of the connection with it of Gen. Schenck, then the American minister in London. The exposure then made of Stewart should, and would, in communities whose morality was better set, have driven him into obscurity. Among his constituents it probably had the effect of endearing him to them. He is now in the United States Senate, heaping gross personal abuse on the President, whose pardon, had he then got his due, he would be at this moment soliciting from the recesses of some state-prison, and not blocking legislation on the simple ground that it would be injurious to some of his own industrial enterprises.

The Denver and Rio Grande Railroad is an enterprise in which a large amount of foreign money is understood to be invested, and it will need to obtain much more than can be furnished by the communities through which it runs before its development is completed. But the general counsel of this road (we believe) is Senator Wolcott of Colorado, who is also one of the directors, and he is perhaps the most audaciously defiant, of the desperate minority in the Senate. Is it probable that capitalists, either of the Eastern States or of Europe, will add to their investments in enterprises and communities thus represented? More than one-fifth of the revenue of this road last year came from the carriage of precious ores, but would it not be better to lose all this revenue than to lose credit? A poor man known to be inflexibly honest can borrow at a low rate of interest when a rich man of different reputation cannot borrow at all. Much the same is true of communities; but when a poor community not only needs to borrow but has got the name of dishonesty, its prospects are not good. Capital will avoid it, settlers will keep away from it, and pros-

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perity will come to it only when the people who take pride in honorably fulfilling their obligations refuse to be dominated by the people who spend their time in ranting against the greed of capitalists.

The evidence is overwhelming that there is almost no popular support in the South of the policy of obstruction to the repeal of the Silver Purchase act. Mississippi is a State which one would expect to show as much favor to such tactics as any, but the editor of the Greenville *Times*, after having "carefully and closely examined the State press," reports that, out of a total of 81 papers, 45 favor unconditional repeal, while only 18 oppose it; the remainder expressing no positive convictions. Moreover, the *Times* says that of the eighty-one "there are not six which do not favor a vote upon this question—which do not view with serious concern the effect of the revolutionary tactics adopted by the silver-State Senators backed by the cotton-State Senators." The Mobile *Register* recently made a similar canvass of the Alabama press, and found that, besides a few papers which are committed to the Populists, there are none that support the obstructive policy to which Senator Pugh has given his adhesion.

The action of the Nebraska Democratic State convention on the financial question is full of significance and encouragement. Nebraska is a State where the Populists have been very strong, and Weaver came within about 5,000 votes of Harrison's poll last fall, drawing strength from both of the old parties, but especially the Democratic. Many of the Democratic managers have yielded to the craze, and favored making terms with the third party this year. Congressman Bryan, who has won a reputation as a brilliant speaker at Washington, cast in his lot with the free-coinage element when that question first came up, and he has been against repeal of the Sherman act at this session. He went home to attend last week's convention, confident that he could easily carry a majority with him in opposition to the President's position, but he found that in the atmosphere of Washington he had utterly misinterpreted the public sentiment of his State. The convention not only refused to follow his lead, but adopted resolutions fully endorsing the President's policy and declaring for the immediate repeal of the Sherman act. Mr. Bryan thereupon announced that he should join the Populists, and the Democrats are to be congratulated upon their loss.

It will be a great surprise to the disciples of the Peffer-Stewart-Jones-Wolcott school of finance to learn from the Treasury statement for September that the per-capita circulation of the country has been increasing during the past month. Their theory is that the recent stringency was caused by the absorption of money by the gold-bugs, and that relief could come only by enlarging the circulation. Mr. Frank B. Tracy, in an article on the Populist party in the current number of the *Forum*, gives the following as their view of money as it was stated to him by "one of the ablest Populists in the West":

> "The money market is like the pork market in which John Cudahy lost his millions. Eastern financiers and gold-bugs are attempting to corner the money market, just as Mr. Cudahy attempted to corner the pork market. Mr. Cudahy failed because the supply of pork was beyond his estimation. Wall Street is succeeding because the supply of money is limited. We insist that the Government should increase the circulating medium to fifty dollars per capita and keep it there. As fast as the plutocrats gather in the money, the Government should issue more money until the money-corner is broken."

We have never been able to get from a Populist or cheap-money advocate a statement of the way in which a new issue of money could be got into the pockets of the people unless the people had something to sell for it. We should like to have them explain now how it is that the "plutocrats" are able to "gather in" all the money that the Government issues—how does it get into their pockets? And if it all flows there, what is the use of the Government trying to put the per capita at $50 and "keep it there"? The only result would be to burst the pockets of the plutocrats.

The platform of the Saratoga convention very appropriately hitches the theft of the Senate to Maynard's candidacy, and puts both before the people of the State for approval. Its opening declaration congratulates the people on the fact that the Democrats had a majority in both branches of the Legislature last year, and following this comes a long and very cheap stump speech upon the alleged public benefits which that majority conferred upon the people. As everybody knows that the majority in the Senate was secured by theft, this arrangement of the platform puts that issue first in the canvass, side by side with the candidacy of the chief agent in the thievery. It was a characteristic bit of machine insolence to reverse the usual order and put all reference to national politics in the second place. The ticket is made up in the same way. The opposition in the party was directed mainly against Maynard, and the only basis for "harmony" that ought to have been accepted was the withdrawal of Maynard. Instead of this, he was put at the head of the ticket, and two anti-machine men of very complacent political disposition were put on below him. The arrangement may please the persons who acquiesced in it, but it will not please many others, least of all the thousands of Democratic voters who have made up their minds not to vote for Maynard.

What the Saratoga platform says upon the silver-repeal question is direct and forcible, and was the only thing that any political party in this State with ordinary sagacity could say at the present time. There is only one opinion held in the State, and that is represented by the demand of the platform for the "speedy and unconditional repeal of the law's obnoxious and injurious provisions." Before the election comes around the repeal ought to be an accomplished fact, but, whether it is or not, the main questions before the people of this State will be the election of a criminal to the bench of their highest court, and the approval by the people of the theft by Maynard and his associates of a seat in the State Senate by which the Democrats secured a majority. No amount of "sops" to anti-snappers, and no amount of carefully worded support of the Cleveland administration in the platform, will avail to blind the voters to this fact.

The Senate committee on foreign relations has made a favorable report on the nomination of Van Alen as ambassador to Italy, on the ground that no reasons were known for rejecting him, his fitness for the place being conceded, and there being no evidence of any bargain when he paid his money into the campaign fund. Every rich man not in public life who has a desire for office will, of course, take notice of the senatorial opinion that for a cash contribution, if there is no bargain, or none that the parties to it will acknowledge, there is no objection to the delivery of the office *for and in consideration of the money*. We say for and in consideration of the money because Mr. Van Alen never was in public life at all; never held so much as a seat in a State Legislature; was never voted for and never took part in any kind of political campaign; never wrote a political article for any magazine or newspaper; never made a political speech; was never heard of in any political capacity whatever until he was nominated as ambassador to Italy. Therefore the office must have been given for and in consideration of money. The Senate may share in the ignominy of this transaction, but it cannot lessen it by confirming him.

Several newspapers, and among them the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, have improved the occasion of the appointment of Van Alen as ambassador to Italy to recommend the raising of the salaries of our ambassadors, so that there will be no excuse for appointing rich men to those positions merely be-

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cause they are rich. There is one defect in this argument. There is no clause in the Constitution which requires an ambassador to spend all of his salary during the year for which it is appropriated. Some of them might be like the wife of John Gilpin, of whom it was said that,

"——though on pleasure she was bent,
She had a frugal mind"

It would not help us very much in the esteem of foreigners to enact that the ambassador to England, for example, should have $40,000 per year provided he would spend the whole of it. Moreover, such a proviso would not be self-executing. It would be necessary to charge some officer of the Treasury with the duty of seeing that he did spend it. If we should couple with the appropriation a requirement that the ambassador should spend the full amount of his salary, questions would arise eventually as to his method of spending it. If the pay were given on such conditions, the public would have rights in the matter, and among others the right to know what the money was spent for, and we may be sure that the newspaper reporters would not lose sight of these rights. Whichever way we turn, our embassies take on a ridiculous air. In Europe, from time immemorial, the "balance of power" has been the great question of nations, and is as great to-day as ever. Embassies exist in order to gain or keep influence at court. The governing classes are to be conciliated and kept in good humor, by all possible means, among which good cheer and a liberal expenditure of money always count largely. We have no such motive for spending money. The "balance of power" is nothing to us. A salary corresponding to those paid by European powers to their ambassadors, with a requirement that it be spent, would have no aim except imitation. We should ape their manners without their *raison d'être*.

Mr. Quincy, who for some years had figured as a prominent civil-service reformer in Boston, but has lately been distributing consulships on the old spoils system in Washington, was called sharply to account by Mr. Moorfield Storey at the dinner of the Massachusetts Reform Club on Saturday, and made his explanation. The reason why he has distributed the consulships as spoils is, that there is no law to prohibit his doing so, and as long as this is the case, he must let Congressmen have their way with them. This "is an unfortunate fact," he says, but it is a fact. It is also a remarkable fact, but a fact, that the men whom the Congressmen wanted appointed were always fit for the places, so that the appointments have been good, owing, of course, to the wisdom and self-denial of the Congressmen. He has given a great many consulships to editors of country newspapers. Why was this? Because the editors had supported the Democratic candidate? Perish the thought. It was because "they had lived and travelled abroad and were generally men of wide information, who took a great interest in the development of the commercial interests of the United States in foreign countries, and were in every way fitted for the consular service." There was hardly an original word in Mr. Quincy's speech, as we have seen it reported in the Boston *Herald*. His defence of his proceedings is the old one by which every attack on the abuses of the civil service has been met during the past thirty years by the spoilsmen. No point in it is so familiar as the impossibility of appointments for merit, under "our system of government." "Our system of government" has, somehow, according to Mr. Quincy's school of politicians, a chemical affinity for abuses of all kinds, including, according to the silver men, a debased currency. We cannot have good money, or good consuls, or anything first-rate, because, somehow, "the system" forbids it. His reasons for corrupting the newspaper press hardly call for comment. They do not seem to have caused merriment at the dinner, but that they have certainly been received with peals of laughter in all the newspaper offices of the country we are quite sure.

There is food for reflection in the failure of a fashionable church on a fashionable avenue in this city to make itself, after trying the experiment for two years, a "people's church." There was no lack of talent or enthusiasm or money on the part of those undertaking the movement; but the attempt to restore on Madison Avenue the idea of a church which St. James had, where the rich and poor would sit together, is now confessed to have been thoroughly unsuccessful. Mixing oil and water is as easy as mixing the classes in New York churches. The poor themselves do not want to go to the same church with the rich, and the rich do not really want them to come. This is simply the weak side of what is, on the whole, the greatest advantage of the church in this city—its social prestige. With that a true people's church is incompatible, inasmuch as it would mean a mixing of rich and poor on week-days as well as Sundays, and in each other's homes as well as in the sanctuary.

M. Zola was received with effusive enthusiasm in London, whither he went to read a paper on "Anonymity in the Press" before the Institute of Journalists. This was the more surprising inasmuch as, while she was embracing the writer, England was at the same time sending a publisher to jail for bringing out a translation of his works. The novelist's address itself was decidedly eclectic, practically urging unsigned political articles and criticism for those who liked that sort of thing, and the signed article or critique for those who preferred the thing that way. We observe, by the by, that he has been picked up pretty sharply by some French writers for having blundered in describing French practice, one critic remarking, in view of certain specified mistakes, that it was somewhat startling to find the father of "the human document" so poorly documented. But this is a charge which has been brought with no little justice against his most boasted realism in his novels, a writer in the *Athenæum* going so far as to assert lately that Zola would be known to future criticism as the most romantic of the romanticists, his world being as purely one of the imagination as theirs, the only difference being that his was filthily imagined.

A diversity of view, not without its amusing features, has sprung up among Paris artists over the question whether they ought to send paintings to the Vienna Exposition next March. The question is not so simple as it might seem. One cannot be too careful in such matters. Suppose your sending a canvas to Vienna should be taken as an endorsement of the Triple Alliance? Are you prepared to strengthen the enemies of your country in that way? Should you not rather seize with avidity upon this opportunity to make a grand demonstration and protest against the Triple Alliance? Those are the queries which are going the rounds of the Parisian ateliers, and not a few of the men who mix their paints with patriotism have declared that they are not going to play into the hands of Humbert and Joseph and William in any such treasonable fashion. The affair has become a question of the day, and reporters have been sent out to interview the better-known artists. Benjamin Constant was disposed to take a flippant view of the case, and asked the reporter: "When an Englishman desires me to paint his portrait, am I to gnash my teeth and growl out, 'Remember Egypt! Think of Madagascar!' and drive him out of my studio?" And even M. Détaille was so lost to true love of country as to suggest: "Those among us who have the patriotic fever would do much better to send to Vienna some *chef-d'œuvre* which would win a tremendous victory for French art." But such opinions as these do not move the resolute painters who are determined to cultivate art for politics' sake, and who will not send a single canvas to Vienna so long as they can get more *réclame* and orders in Paris by abstaining.

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THE SENATORIAL "TUG OF WAR."

THE minority in the Senate, as we go to press, is entering on the process of obstruction pure and simple. Mr. Voorhees's demand for a continuous session until a vote on the repeal bill is taken means that the Senate, "the most august body in the world," as one of its members recently called it, will endeavor, at the close of two months' deliberation, to reach a decision on a most important public question by a trial of physical strength. That is to say, a most important problem in the national finances will be solved by ascertaining which of two small bodies of elderly men can go longest without sleep and without taking off their clothes. Another mode of reaching the same result, and one fully as likely to prove satisfactory, would be what athletes call the "tug of war"—that is, hauling on a rope in opposite directions by the contending parties. Under this process, if Mr. Voorhees and the majority succeeded in pulling Mr. Stewart and the minority over a chalked line on the floor, the repeal bill would pass. On the other hand, if Mr. Stewart and his men succeeded in pulling Mr. Voorhees and his men over the line, the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month would continue.

The superiority of this to "the continuous-session" plan must be plain to the meanest capacity. It would, in the first place, be a very speedy process. The result could be reached in half an hour, whereas the continuous-session struggle may last for ten days. In the second place, it would be very much less injurious to the health of the Senators. The wear and tear of sleepless nights and irregular meals on elderly men will of course be very great. It may carry some of them to their graves. The "tug of war," on the other hand, could hurt none but those with weak hearts, and they could be excluded by a careful examination by the Senate's physician. But, no matter which process is resorted to, we venture to say the spectacle of a decision in financial policy reached in this way by the most famous second chamber in the world will be a heavy blow to constitution-makers all over the earth. When they see Voorhees and Stewart trying to starve each other out on a currency question, their brains will reel.

The United States Senate is the prototype of all the artificial upper houses in the modern world, and indeed may be said to be the lineal descendant of the Roman Senate. It was intended by the founders of the Constitution to be what the Roman Senate was in its best days; that is, an assembly of distinguished "exes," if we may use the expression—ex-governors, ex-judges, ex-generals, and so forth; of men who had served with distinction in inferior positions, and would bring to its debates tested, as distinguished from probable or expected, character and judgment. All the other second chambers, at the close of the last century and beginning of this, were based on birth and wealth. The first one set up after the French Revolution—the Chamber of Peers under the Restoration—was an almost exact copy of the English House of Lords. Since its failure the American Senate has furnished the model for the new constitutions. Every parliamentary country except Germany and Austria has copied it within the present century, and, more than this, the arguments by which second chambers are defended are generally drawn from the 'Federalist.' In most of the essays and speeches which either advocate the creation of a senate or defend a chamber of peers against popular reproach, the lower house usually appears as a passionate, tumultuous, headstrong body, which may at any moment rush into the wildest excesses. The Senate, on the other hand, always appears sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought. The members are middle-aged men surrounded by honor, love, and obedience in their respective communities, and bringing to the consideration of public affairs the ripened judgment and experience of more or less illustrious careers in the arts, in arms, in commerce, and in jurisprudence. Such is the Senate of the poets, the literary men, the jurists, and the professors of political science.

The effect on these gentlemen of the approaching "tug of war" may be more readily imagined than described. When Stewart and his men go down, as they doubtless will, before the superior physical vigor of Voorhees and his men, the effect on modern second chambers will be hardly inferior to that on the Roman Senate of Cæsar's arrival in Rome after Pompey's flight. The senatorial dignity, not to say majesty, cannot survive "the tug of war." People will say that if such a body has to reach a vote on the gravest of measures through a trial of physical endurance—that is, through a process for which Italian or Irish laborers at $1.25 a day are fully as competent as the hardiest silver-man now in the Senate—they will not care to go to the expense and trouble of a Senate very much longer. A deliberative body in which, under its own rules, the minority cannot be made to vote without reducing them to a state of physical exhaustion, as with chloroform or cocaine, is an absurdity which the modern world will not tolerate or imitate very long. It can get that sort of legislation done for much less than $5,000 a year.

THE ETHICS OF CAMPAIGN FUNDS.

WE have received several communications apropos of the Van Alen affair, asking whether we mean to take the ground that the contribution of money to a campaign fund ought to disqualify a man for office in case his party is victorious at the election. If so, say the writers, it would in England shut out a man like Lord Rosebery or Arnold Morley, both heavy contributors to the electioneering expenses, and in this country men like the late Samuel J. Tilden, or Abram S. Hewitt, or the late Hamilton Fish. These men, having plenty of money, gave freely and properly to the legitimate expenses of a party canvass, and no party canvass can be conducted without great outlay. The work of organization in modern democratic states—of "bringing out the vote," as we call it—is necessarily expensive, and the cost must be, and always largely will be, borne by the rich men of the party. Are such men to be deprived of the right to hold office, therefore, simply because they are rich, and are greatly interested in politics, and have aided in a perfectly legitimate manner in winning the party victory?

It seems at first sight as if this raised a difficult question, but the practice both of England and America shows the question to be a very simple one and easily answered. In truth, the English mode of producing candidates for high office leaves no room for it in that country whatever. In the first place, there are in the diplomatic and consular service no places to be bestowed in return for electioneering services of any kind. Both are regularly organized, like the army or navy, in which men hold their offices during good behavior, are promoted through seniority or for special service, and are expected to possess a proper equipment for their particular posts in the matter of language and experience.

Every now and then, however, a man who is not in the regular diplomatic service gets a great embassy, like that of Paris, or Rome, or Constantinople, because of special fitness for some extraordinary crisis. Lord Dufferin is a conspicuous example of this, but we can recall no case when such a distinction was conferred on a very rich man, or on any man for activity in home politics. There thus remain only places in the cabinet to be given in return for "heavy checks." But in the first place, if any English minister were fool enough to load himself with incompetent rich men in the cabinet, as they would have to maintain themselves in the House of Commons, their obscurity and want of debating capacity would cover him with ridicule and drive him out of office in a few weeks.

In the second place, English practice ever since 1688 requires candidates for high office to have served an apprenticeship either in Parliament or in subordinate offices, and to have become known to the country in one or other of these places. So that when a minister comes to make up his cabinet, the possible men are designated for him by a process of selection which has been going on for years, and out of this cir-

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cle he cannot travel. Mr. Gladstone, for instance, could no more go to a dry-goods store in Regent Street and take Marshall or Snellgrove for the Postmaster-Generalship, because either of them had made a handsome contribution to the Liberal chest, than he could sell the furniture in his official residence in Downing Street and pocket the proceeds. In other words, the Wanamaker transaction, or any transaction like it, would be impossible in England. A man in English politics may be rich, very rich, and give freely to the party treasury, but in order to get high office he must be something else than rich, and must have made himself known to the public, as well as to the ministers, by the display of some kind of talent or acquirement. To take three or four of the most recent entries into official life: Balfour had been fifteen years in the House of Commons before he became Irish Secretary; Chamberlain had been the leader of the Radical wing of the Liberals in the Midland counties for twelve years, and had won great distinction as a municipal reformer in Birmingham and served in one Parliament; Bryce had sat twelve years in Parliament, and become famous as an author and professor of law; and Asquith had achieved high distinction at the bar and served in one Parliament—before obtaining seats in the cabinet.

The process of selection with us is by no means either so elaborate or so sure, but it is sure enough to make it quite easy to avoid mistakes. In each party there are enough men marked out for high places by other signs than wealth to prevent any misapprehension as to the reason for appointing them, no matter what their contributions to the campaign fund may have been. If the late James Russell Lowell had given $100,000 to aid in electing President Hayes in 1876, his appointment to the Spanish mission would nevertheless have been universally recognized as fit and pure. The same thing might have been said in 1884 if the London mission had been given to George William Curtis. No gift could have disqualified Charles Francis Adams for the London mission in 1861. Neither Samuel J. Tilden nor Abram S. Hewitt could have unfitted himself for the Treasury Department by any donation, however large. It is true, we freely allow the selection of obscure men for high places every now and then, because of local party service, or some special personal relation to the President, but it may be said to be an unwritten popular requirement that such appointees shall be poor or in moderate circumstances. Much tolerance as there is for venality of one sort or another, the American people are not prepared to allow obscure wealthy men to be popped suddenly into high offices of state, because they will never believe that a rich man of whom they have never heard before, got his place without paying for it. This natural and valuable popular distrust must be taken into account by all Presidents. It is the salt of public life. It may be the salvation of the republic. It is not enough that there are other reasons than his wealth for making a man a cabinet officer or an ambassador. They must be patent reasons, reasons that the humblest voter can see and understand.

THE FEDERAL ELECTION LAW.

THE discussion of the Federal Election law and its proposed repeal, which has been in progress for some three weeks, has attracted little attention, either in the House of Representatives or in the country at large. Few people in Washington have cared enough about the speeches to hear them, and the newspapers have but reflected popular indifference in the scant space given to the reports. It is safe to say that no supposably important measure has come before Congress for a long time about which the people seemed to care so little.

One reason for this popular indifference is the fact that the question of repealing the law was practically settled last year. The long controversy over the Force bill during the Harrison administration was virtually a contest as to whether the attempt to regulate elections through the exercise of the federal power should be abandoned, or pushed further than had before been attempted. It was universally felt last year that, if the Democrats should win, they would repeal the law. They did win by a great majority, and since then everybody has taken its repeal for granted.

Such support as the existing statutes on the subject receive is largely perfunctory. Every candid Republican admits that the law has utterly failed to accomplish what was expected of it. It was advocated originally on the ground that it would secure "a free election and a fair count" at the South, which would mean Republican majorities, largely composed of negroes, in more than half of the congressional districts in that part of the country. The system has been tried for more than twenty years, and there is not a Republican from a single district having a large negro population, with the single exception of one from South Carolina. In other words, it has been just as practicable to keep the blacks from voting or to miscount their votes with a federal election law as without one. To advocate its retention on the ground that it does any good in that section is therefore absurd.

The system has been equally worthless in the North. The perfection of its application has been seen in New York city under "Johnny" Davenport, who used it simply as a means of paying a lot of political "strikers" out of the Treasury at Washington for alleged help to the Republican party. As a matter of fact, these strikers only hurt the party by disgusting fair-minded men with an organization which resorted to such methods. The utter uselessness of the law as a partisan device was demonstrated last November, when in the face of it there was rolled up in this city an enormous Democratic majority. Of course it would be absurd to discuss it in any other than its partisan aspect here, where Davenport is so well known, because the idea of getting any assistance towards honest elections from him is preposterous.

The theory of the system is radically wrong. This theory was that the way to secure fair elections in any State was, not through the governmental methods of that State, but through the interference of federal authority. Elections will be honest or dishonest according as the people of a community will to have them. It is with elections as with other things—public order, for example. Indiana has for years suffered from "whitecaps," and Mississippi is now terribly ravaged by such bands of outlaws. Such lawlessness will go on until the people of those States make up their minds to suppress it. If there were any way by which an excuse could be found for the interposition of the Federal Government through its courts, the cure could not be wrought through them, because courts, whether federal or State, depend for their efficiency upon popular sentiment, and when that sentiment is lacking in a State, such criminals will go unpunished. That has been the trouble with the Federal Election law in every Southern State—there has been so little support of it on the part of the people that juries could not be got to convict offenders against it.

Progress has been making towards fairer elections of late years, both North and South, but it has not been through the federal authorities. In every case it has been because the people of a State became convinced of its necessity, and ordained it through State laws. Anybody familiar with the spirit of our institutions might have predicted in advance that the experiment would have worked precisely as it has done. So, too, might any one who has studied our political history have informed the Republican managers that "Johnny" Davenports would do the party far more harm than good. It seems to be regarded as necessary, for consistency's sake, by most Republicans in Congress and in the press to "make a howl" over the proposed repeal of the Federal Election law, but there is little sincerity in the outcry, and a great many members of the party will be glad to get rid of a system which has been tried in the balance and found wanting.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.

THE example set at Paris in 1889 has been duly followed at Chicago, and a series of "congresses" on all sorts of sub-

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jects has been one of the features of the World's Fair. But the number and prominence of such assemblages at international expositions only accentuate the tendency towards holding them, which has been distinctly on the increase during the past few years. Scarcely a topic of large scientific or philanthropic interest can be mentioned which has not had, or is not planning to have, its international congress. Whether due or not to a growing sentiment of cosmopolitanism, or to the desire of investigators and reformers to adopt something of the comparative method, the fact must have fallen under the observation of everybody.

It must be admitted that too often these international congresses have had their ludicrous aspects. In allusion to them, a French writer recently defined an international congress as a gathering where the speakers or essayists rarely understood each other, and never succeeded in making themselves understood, though the members would nevertheless separate in a state of mutual complacency and good-will, conscious of having worthily played a great rôle, proud of having touched elbows with official personages, and joyful at the sight of their names in the newspapers. Such results are, indeed, inevitable to a greater or less extent when diversity of language is added to difficulty of subject. How the thing worked in one case is wittily described by the Frenchman mentioned, M. Édouard Rod, when he tells of his own experiences at a Peace Congress held at Berne a few years ago. First they had some general and eloquent remarks on the horrors of war and the blessings of peace, and then they took up the practical question of "neutralizing" various countries so as to withdraw them from the possible range of a "general war in Europe." Egypt was satisfactorily neutralized by acclamation, and Tunis by resolution. So was Rumania by a good majority, and Norway and Sweden by a close vote. After that, affairs grew critical, and the Peace Congress was in danger of becoming a general scrimmage, being saved from such a painful ending only by a strategic motion to adjourn for one year, until public sentiment should have had time to "ripen."

It is evident that the subject under discussion has a great deal to do with the success or failure, the dignity or absurdity, of international congresses. Where the gathering is simply one of workers in a broad field of scientific inquiry, who come together to compare notes and to block out work for the future, there is no difficulty, and the published proceedings are often of great value. The Congress of Americanists, or international medical congresses, are instances in point. In these a certain amount of special knowledge is necessary to secure membership and a hearing, and the very need of sticking to a body of ascertained fact cuts down the theorizers and discourages faddists. But as soon as we approach questions of social reform, the case at once alters. Benevolence is then made the equivalent of competence as a basis for an invitation to "read a paper," and performers on wind instruments are apt to abound.

When an international congress takes up what may fairly be called "an open question," it is as good as settled that its proceedings will be futile. If the management is fair, and gives both sides a hearing, the result will be very much like a drawn battle. If it is partial and prejudiced, and arranges for speakers on only one side of the case, as was done at the World's Temperance Congress at Chicago, all the opinions are discounted and discredited from the start. Moreover, in either case, it is almost impossible to get a man to read a paper on an open question who will be willing to treat it as open. The reason he is ready to read is, that he thinks he has closed the question, and that he can close it for his hearers, and finally for the whole world, if only he is given a chance. Hence, we almost surely get intemperate and positive assertion, instead of cautious discussion, and the only question that will appear to the dispassionate observer to be closed is the question of the futility of such exhibitions. This is particularly true when men who, for years, have been compelled to discuss their favorite projects for reforming the race within the circle of their luckless friends and neighbors, at last get a foothold on an international platform, and let loose on all mankind their plans for forming a World's Society for Badgering the Poor, or an International Congress of Parents to emphasize the importance of training children.

Another common failing of international congresses arises from their tacit assumption of legislative powers. They forget that their legitimate function is to appeal to and to educate public opinion, and they go ahead with their solemn resolves and acts as if a new Amphictyonic Council making laws for the whole world. But reform by resolution is really no more impressive on an international than on a local scale. The abuse of alcohol is just as apt to be ended by a series of thirteen whereases and a score of resolveds in a county temperance convention in Rhode Island, as it is in a World's Temperance Congress at Chicago. In short, it is clear that the true function of international congresses, called to debate unsolved and perhaps insoluble problems, is that of intelligent and all-sided discussion, with the aim of stimulating inquiry and experiment and influencing public opinion, and not at all that of acting as lawgivers for the whole human race.

THE SOUTHERN FARM SINCE THE CIVIL WAR.

CLARK'S HILL, S. C., September, 1893.

THE changes wrought in the South by Mr. Lincoln's proclamation of emancipation were enormous and far-reaching. To a native returning here after some years' absence they appear more clearly than to one who has remained on the spot all the time. The locality from which I write is in that broad band of hill country, gradually sloping towards the Atlantic, neither mountainous nor level, lying between the Appalachian chain and the sandy belt along the coast. It is a strip about five miles wide in the western part of South Carolina, with the Savannah River on one side and a creek on the other. The plantations here in the days of slavery averaged about a thousand acres and fifty to sixty negroes. All the conditions make this place and the surrounding district fairly typical of the large undulating region in which it lies.

In this broken country, water has been man's chief enemy, for outside of the "low grounds" along both streams there is hardly a level acre to be found. The most shiftless system of agriculture the world has ever seen has been practised here since the first "new grounds" were cleared. In no instance was any attempt made to prevent washing, and in many cases gullies were deliberately courted by laying off cotton and corn-rows up and down the hill-side. To replace the seamed and gashed fields, the axe would ring nearly all the winter, and a new "patch" would be prepared for the plough. This reckless squandering of mother earth's gifts destroyed perhaps half of the arable surface by 1865.

For the first year or so after that era the negro remained with his former slave-master and worked the old land on shares, furnishing the labor only and receiving one-third to one-half of the gross product. Afterwards the black seemed frenzied to break away from all his previous humiliating associations. A wholesale spirit of swapping bosses came over him, and wagonloads of household stuff passed from "quarter" to "quarter." He next wanted to become a renter, though with few exceptions he had nothing besides his "naked human strength." The landowner had to credit him, without security, for stock, seed, food, implements. The universal custom was to charge two bales of cotton—about 800 pounds lint—for a one-mule farm. More fresh land was wanted, and the black agreed to fell the forests on condition of using the ground rent free for two crops. Under this stimulus, the dark woods soon gave way before their keen-edged enemy. With the folly of their fathers, the planters put forth no effort to save their land. Rotation, even if thought of, was practically impossible with the negro so determined to make cotton; manuring has never been tried to the present day. With a clean-culture crop like cotton on the hills, season after season, the fierce showers of summer soon justified the colloquial expression, "No man here has a title to his land."

The conclusion of such careless methods was plain and the end not far. The soil being gone, the negro had to go too. Generally he went in the same direction that the cause of his departure had gone—down stream towards the ocean, and farther southward and westward to Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Large numbers went to the towns and villages lately sprung up in this belt. It is astonishing to see how mobile these people have become in a third of a century of free-

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dom. Negroes who were never more than a few miles from home, and then only on Sundays with a pass, are now ready to go anywhere, and have as keen an eye for the main chance as the dominant race. From this agricultural community, which until a few years ago was twenty miles from the nearest railway, rough field hands and the descendants of field hands have drifted to New Orleans, Louisville, Washington, Baltimore, New York, and Boston. They have gone mostly as waiters, one or two going as ministers. In one respect they suffer from the same limitations that the whites do. Neither can make the change from the hill country to the sands without serious impairment of health, and many die in the acclimatizing process.

As a result of the destruction of the soil, the same land maintains fewer people than it did in slavery. It is impossible to get exact figures, but the best judges believe that only about three-fifths as many people live on this strip as lived here in former days. A few reliable data are fairly typical of the whole. On one plantation at the upper end about a hundred slaves dwelt; now it has about twenty-five or thirty negroes. Another, about the middle, had forty-one slaves; it now supports one family of about five. A third, alongside of this, which had forty, now has twenty-one. As might be expected, almost all the more intelligent of the blacks went from the farms. The picturesque plantation, that formed a little world-unit in itself, with its carpenter, wheelwright, blacksmith, mason, spinners, weavers, tailors, and shoemakers, has disappeared. Scarcely a negro artisan is to be found in this locality. On the other hand, the whites have increased slightly.

While this movement has gone on in the population, significant changes have taken place in the conduct and condition of those remaining. Emancipation was a revolution in the life of both white and black, but, if one may base a conclusion on narrow limits, the negro has stood the test better than his former owner. The circumstances of old slave-owners (at least those who counted many slaves), as a class, have decidedly not improved. They have seen their lands torn by rains and eaten up by claims. They often go on foot where they used to ride in carriages. Their table is supplied with less quantity, but probably greater variety, than of old, though "hog and hominy" is still the chief diet. "Store-clothes" have replaced home-spun. Not so many of the boys go to college. Sermons are still heard once a month, shorter and more moderate and not so theological. Unable to accommodate himself to the new order, and with debts hanging over him, the course of the old slavocrat is painful and halting. To add to his perplexities, some of his sons have caught the urban fever, and others have ceased to look to the farm for a living. Of some twenty young men grown up in this neighborhood in the past ten years, only six have become farmers.

While his master has been struggling to hold his own, the black has bounded forward. Cast forth a child, with scarcely more than clothes on his back, he had to combat the bitter prejudice of the whites against his elevation. I can remember when a sneer greeted the report that a negro was trying to learn to read, when there was a feeling of hot resentment at his purchase of a horse or cow, while a mob might have been gathered to prevent him from buying land among white neighbors. Now nearly every family has a cow, and many of them a horse, while there are three farms owned by negroes, and land is as readily sold to them as to any one.

With this gathering of property have come more wants, greater variety in dress, more dishes for the palate, better churches, education, travelling. The black pinches to get a ready-made suit once a year or so. Flour has largely replaced corn-meal on his table. For a few years after 1865 he did as the Druids of old did—built up a leafy bower in the forest and lifted up his voice in worship. This was replaced by a rude board shelter with log seats. Now the blacks have just completed a large, commodious frame house, well supplied with benches, glazed windows, and a gallery.

Their passion for learning is well known, but the earnest, noble efforts of this poverty-stricken people for education can never be too highly appreciated. The religious feeling has worked in this direction among them as it has among the whites. The negroes of this locality are Baptists, and an organization of this church, the Union, composed of some ten churches, has undertaken to provide a good "macademy," as so many of them call an academy. A farm of 140 acres, with a fine school site centrally located, has been bargained for, and the school will open next year under competent teachers. The farm will be divided into smaller lots, to be sold or rented, in order to raise revenue for the school.

With the construction of the railway about a decade since, the blacks here could more easily indulge their fancy for seeing something of the world. They pack excursion trains to Augusta, the nearest large city, twenty-five miles away; more adventurous spirits go much further and spend a large part of their earnings in this way. One of the simplest-minded negroes I ever knew has bloomed into a local Marco Polo, and can tell great tales about the high mountains, the broad ocean, about tobacco farms in North Carolina, rice plantations near Charleston, and orange groves in Florida. In spite of the great sacrifice necessary to keep his two sons, Robert Henry George Washington and Solomon Grundy, at school, he says, "I'se got to set out every other year and trabble somewhar."

With this development and multiplication of the negro's wants there could be no decline in efficiency, and it is gratifying to know that no one believes that he has lost in value as a laborer, while many hold he has improved—and this in spite of the almost universal fear, after Lee's surrender, that the blacks would be worthless as soon as all the "old black whip niggers" had died off. It is still more pleasant and still more surprising to learn that many experienced observers say that the black is more prompt in paying his debts than the white, and all say he is equally good. But all this material advance has more sharply defined social grades. In a very small and select circle aristocracy is distinguished by ownership of land, but it is generally marked by possession of an animal, either horse, mule, cow, or jackass. There is as much talk among blacks as among whites about marrying for money. It is more amusing, because louder and less concealed, and because the amount of wealth involved is smaller. A young girl has made an extra-fine catch if her husband has a horse, cow, and pig. Just as with their blue-blooded brethren everywhere, those who ride to church are far above those who walk. This pride especially aroused my attention the first Sunday morning after I returned home. I sat on the front piazza to watch the streams of colored worshippers go walking by to their devotions as in years long past. They went in considerable numbers, but on horseback and in buggies, with a small percentage on foot. Along with this growth of family pride has come the desire to preserve the memory of the dead. Only a few are able to afford such a luxury, and the churchyard here, containing a hundred or more graves, has only two or three small marble headstones, and these have been set up in the last ten years.

The plant of civilization must needs be disfigured with excrescences. Up to fifteen years ago, tramps of any sort were unknown. Now, whites go by, at some seasons, daily, and gangs of colored wandering beggars have also begun. Usually such negroes are willing to work on odd jobs *only*. It is probable that these vagrant bands furnish the wretched victims for the horrible lynchings described with so much detail in the local papers. The problem of house-servants has also arisen down here. The domestics trained in slavery have all either died or scornfully left the boss's house. The fat old colored mammy that presided with such severity in the kitchen is now only a reminiscence. It is difficult to get a negro for such personal service at all, and none but the rawest, gawkiest girls can be obtained. The price paid may have something to do with this: an average girl gets only $20 a year. The women work in the field if the crop belongs to the family; otherwise they hardly work at all, as they will not hire.

While the negro has been slowly improving in his habits and ways of life, there has been also a gradual advance in the financial system among the farmers. Those of this neighborhood have been one year behind, and the returns from each year's crop have always been spent before harvest time. At first the merchant furnished the food and implements, charging a time price which was from 25 to 100 per cent. above the cash price. With the borrower at his mercy, the dealer paid no attention to either time element or interest rate in fixing his terms. The farmer in turn used his credit as capital and made it the basis for a still more advanced price, and the negro in most cases paid double for all he got. As supplies were procured at different times, it required a skilled accountant to tell what rate of interest either white or black paid. There was no hope of getting out of this mire until more money was available in this section. This came when the cotton factor could furnish money at a stated charge, he himself looking to the banks. Of late years, however, with the establishment of a few local banks, some farmers in the surrounding district have been enabled to apply directly to them, with a consequent lowering of their interest rate to about 10 or 12 per cent. Relief has also come in a corresponding way, though not so fully, to the negro renter. Until within a few years, each one had to look to the owner of his land for all credit. In this locality, as in many others, a few farmers have accumulated a sufficiency to become capitalists to some trustworthy negroes. The interest is high, from 20 to 75 per cent., but the ignorant fellow knows exactly what he has to pay, and there is no chance for nimble white fingers to "figure up" a big account. At one time hopes were high when the Land Loan Companies began to do business in the State, but the interest—20 per cent. and upwards, running over the entire year—was too heavy a burden, especially with the steady drop in cotton. Advantage was taken of the usury laws, and the companies have withdrawn from this section.

In another way capital has come to lighten the load on the farm. Steam has supplanted horse power in ginning the cotton. One engine releases the capital locked up in a dozen

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houses and cumbrous outfits. But, of late, centralization has gone a step further. A large plant, in combination with an oil mill at a town twenty miles off, is driving to the wall a dozen or more rivals in a radius of ten miles. The farmer sells both lint and seed, and saves the haul home, or carries back commercial fertilizer. He has still, in all the hill country of the South, to face the problem of constant destruction of the soil by rain, and the crushing competition of the Mississippi bottoms and Texas prairies in the production of cotton—practically the only market crop in all this belt. The wearing force of water is a most serious menace to future prosperity. There are plantations here with 500 acres of gullies out of a total of 1,000 acres. Nature does her best at recuperation with the "old-field" pine (short-leaf variety), but even this sombre tree must labor for a millennium before covering up man's hideous butchery. It is almost sickening to see a broad, sloping hill which, fifteen years ago, made a bale of cotton to the acre, now a mesh of leaping torrents at every rain. Forestry is as little talked of here as an expedition to the moon, and yet no spot more needs something of the sort. The declivities have been denuded of vegetation, and the rich valleys are becoming useless for agriculture. When I was a boy, it was entirely safe to plant along the creek; now for the past three seasons the angry waters have deluged the growing corn. Terracing is being timidly tried, and on gradual slopes with success, but there must be more thrift and energy before the farmer here can carry this handicap in the race against the level lands.

The waste of soil, coupled with the decline in the price of cotton, is slowly forcing a change in farming, in the direction of greater diversity in production. In this immediate locality several have begun to raise fruit. A few miles away, some active men have started dairying, and drive weekly some fifteen or twenty miles across the country to sell butter in Augusta. Others raise stock horses, mules, beeves, and small flocks of sheep. Here and there a hennery has been set up on a limited scale. Nearly all produce more corn and meat than in former days. It is an open expression among a few, and silent conviction among the many, that King Cotton has passed his day of undisputed supremacy on hill farms. Under such conditions intelligence in studying the markets and energy of management will be on the side of the white; but whether these qualities will offset the black's toughness of fibre and power of abstinence can be decided only by time. One special class, the old slavocrats and their descendants, are additionally weighted by the slipshod habits and careless methods that have descended as a legacy to them from slavery. Brought up with broad, generous notions of life, it was only natural that they should try to keep up something of their former style. It was only incapacity of poor human foresight that led them into mortgages in hopes that a future rise in cotton would enable them to meet the demands. Reared in idleness, with untrained muscles and unpunctual ways, they neither wanted to work nor could endure steady manual effort, even if they had so desired. Their children have imbibed some of this spirit of leisurely dignity and have inherited some of this weakness of physical constitution. But the majority of the whites were not large slave-owners. By actual daily contact with the sun's rays, they have got hardened to the summer heat. Men of this class (and it is an extensive one) can stand the scorch and blister of the hottest spells side by side with the black. But neither in the days of slavery nor since have they been the influential class in thought, in industry, or in politics. It seems an open question whether a man can do hard manual labor, day after day, in this hot climate while still preserving that firm yet elastic spirit and fertility of resource so necessary for supremacy.

Still, no matter how low prices may fall, the thrifty farmer here can insure himself against want because he can raise nearly all he needs on his own land and with his own hands. Fruits, beef, mutton, poultry, dairy products, meal, vegetables—all these he can get in profusion by his own efforts. In fact, nearly everything for his table, except sugar, this soil will yield, though wheat is a rather uncertain crop, and its cheapness in the West has about killed its cultivation with us. Even a substitute for sugar can be found in the sorghum molasses rather abundantly produced for one or two years during the civil war. For implements and appliances of metal and for cloth (though the farmer can go back to primitive methods and make that) he must have a small money crop—four or five bales per family—which he can grow on half-a-dozen acres. Such a life would not be a full one or a liberal one, but it would be a comfortable one. Only laziness can bring a healthy land-owning family here anywhere near want. C. MERIWETHER.

THE MASTER OF BALLIOL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., October 6, 1893.

To old Oxford men the news of Jowett's death brings a peculiar sense of desolation. One by one the unique personalities are passing away from university life. Pusey has gone, and Green and Liddon and Freeman and Matthew Arnold; Ruskin is in distant seclusion. There remain in Oxford some great scholars and more able administrators; but where shall we look for men of that indefinable charm, that unceasing attractiveness repelling familiarity, which we felt in the Master of Balliol? Perhaps this is the old mistake of the *laudator temporis acti:* every fresh generation of undergraduates finds, let us hope, its own gods to worship; but to those who are no longer undergraduates, Oxford, in spite of all its material beauty, becomes more and more commonplace. And to a Balliol man the feeling of loss is incomparably more vivid. To us "the Jowler" *was* the college. Other colleges, Magdalen or New, might have noble buildings and lovely parks; in our austerity we thought them enervating. Other colleges might be "at the head of the river," and most of us did not greatly care; hat we considered appropriate enough for a college like Brasenose. What we prided ourselves upon was a real or imaginary intellectual preëminence, a mental alertness, a combination of old-fashioned scholarship with new-fashioned hospitality to ideas; and of these qualities the Master was to us the incarnation. Of course we were proud of our dons; we thought there were none like them. We enjoyed Nettleship's supposed inability to make up his indubitably keen mind; we caught fire from Toynbee's rapt enthusiasm; but these were but parts of the college, while Jowett summed up the whole. The men of other colleges doubtless often called us prigs, and our stories of "the Master" sometimes bored them; but that was what we felt.

Jowett's person was, like his mind, dainty. An irreverent writer once spoke of his face as of the tombstone-cherub order; and the phrase was descriptive. But cherubs too frequently have something gross in their chubbiness; and everything about the Master was delicate and fine. Perhaps it was his appearance which helped to create the affection which mingled with our awe and respect; he was the *Doctor Seraphicus* of the college. Yet we trembled when we had to go and see him, even at a breakfast party, to say nothing of less agreeable occasions. In his clear little staccato voice he could say such biting things. Many were the stories of breakfast parties with long silences, broken by the more adventurous, who suffered accordingly; of undergraduates taken for walks and left to make the conversation, with painful results to themselves. What was the explanation? we asked ourselves. Did the Master enjoy discomfiting the shallow with his rapier thrusts? or could it possibly be that, after all these years, he was still shy himself, and said what he did because he could not help it? Probably the last theory, if not complete, was the truer. And certainly the undergraduate or young graduate who had anything really to say, however contrary it might be to the Master's opinion, and was so interested in the subject that he forgot the mastership and spoke out freely, was sure to win Jowett's esteem. Such a conversation, which the young man when he came to his ordinary self thought of with wonder and a flushed face, was not seldom followed by an invitation to dinner.

On the first and fifth Sundays of each term the Master preached to us in the College chapel. Strange sermons they seemed to those accustomed to hear from the pulpit of the problems of faith and immortality and the soul. As a rule he gave us nothing but the truisms of wholesome living and kindly good fellowship: how that the older men should call upon the newcomers, and how mistaken were diffidence and introspection—like the old college sermon which he is said, when staying with his friend, Principal Shairp, to have preached to a congregation of Scotch fishwives, on the duty of small-talk. The connection between sermon and text was sometimes slight. Thus, on the text, "Man does not live by bread alone, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth" ("of God" being, he remarked, an unnecessary addition of some of the manuscripts), he preached every five or six years a discourse "on what our ancestors might have called 'The Governance of the Tongue,' but what I prefer to call 'The Art of Conversation.'" We admired the style; we were on the lookout for quaint turns of expression; we chuckled over glimpses of heterodoxy; but the wisdom of it was in large measure beyond our years. So far as we did understand it, some of us occasionally thought the wisdom was of the world—not meanly worldly, but worldly still. Let your object, he seemed to say, be distinction of some sort. Be a martyr, if you like, but a distinguished martyr. To us then he hardly seemed to have a gospel for the average man; and perhaps this impression was not altogether an unfair one.

It was this æsthetic appreciation of distinction which made Jowett welcome young earls to the college. We made jest of this, but none of us thought the Master a tuft-hunter. The penniless Scotchman with a reputation from Glasgow was just as welcome. The Master liked to think of the college as sending forth men who in various ways were to influence the world. Yet he could be very kind to the obscure. Meeting a young graduate making a living by "coaching" or private tuition, he asked him how he was getting on. He was told that there had been few pupils that term, and that the coach had been obliged to give up his hope of going to Germany in the vacation. A

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few days later the coach was sent for, and given an envelope with the words: "I hope you will go to Germany; good-bye." Four years later the Master had quite forgotten he had ever drawn that check.

In all old members of the college who made the smallest mark for themselves in after life, the Master had an unfailing interest. Critics said that all his geese were swans. Whether swans or geese, they all received from him the same antique courtesy. When recovering from his last severe illness, he was able to spend part of his time in dictating letters to his secretary, and in one of these, to a former undergraduate who had sent him a book, it is touching to see the note appended to his signature in microscopic characters: "Excuse my writing to you by the hand of Miss K." In these type-writing days the painfully scribbled line is eloquent.

Hitherto I have been trying to give some impression of the place the Master occupied in the minds of the young men around him. This is hardly the time to attempt that broader view which would show what he has been to Oxford, to literature, and to speculation during the last half century. To the outside world he became known first as a heretic, as one of the authors of 'Essays and Reviews.' But he never became the active "leader" of a movement; he was content with his own belief, which was, apparently, an old-fashioned Deism, without striving to persuade the world that it was compatible with the Anglican formularies, though his own position implied it. In his latter years, at any rate, he took but little interest in technical theology. When he appealed to the public again, it was with his translation of Plato. It is a commonplace to say that Jowett made Plato an English classic, but it is true. There are many who could reëcho the remark made by a studious woman living away in the country and far from the babble about contemporary reputations: "I never enjoyed a book more than Jowett's translation of the *Republic;* it marks an epoch in my life." For no one ever succeeded in making the readers of Plato realize, as he did, the essential modernness of Greek thought.

But it was as a tutor, and afterwards as Master, of Balliol that Jowett made the deepest impression upon his time. I suppose it is true to say that to him is largely due the tutorial system in its present Oxford shape. That system is one, there can be no question, of enormous benefit to the ordinary student. Its defect is that it imposes all-devouring obligations on the tutor, and sacrifices to education the advancement of learning. It will break down ultimately of its own sheer weight: but it must be remembered that the worst excesses of the system are the growth of the last few years; and perhaps the Master hardly realized what a momentum the movement had acquired to which he had helped to give the initial impulse. To Balliol and Jowett, again, is largely due the excessive importance to-day of the honor examinations of the University. There is unquestionably a good deal that is unhealthy in the present stress of preparation for tests of various kinds which marks the life of a large number of the abler students at Oxford, especially among the poorer men. But the system may well have seemed the only practicable method, under English conditions, of securing for moneyless brains a fair chance in the University, and, through the University, in English society. The defects which we deplore alike in the tutorial system and in the examination system are, after all, the well-nigh unavoidable excesses associated with a reforming movement in the main salutary. W. J. A.

IN THE BALEARIC ISLANDS.—V.

VALLDEMOSA, August, 1893.

THERE seem to be at times inadjustable differences between facts and feelings, for while we were convinced, on consulting the statistics of summer temperature for Mallorca, that the maximum given would be quite bearable, yet when our thermometer registered but 75 degrees, we found ourselves unaccountably uncomfortable in Palma. It was, perhaps, a foregone conclusion that, having fallen under the spell of Valldemosa, we should return, and, a "celda" being vacant in the Cartuja, retire within its walls. Its cool retreats, where mortification of the flesh must have been a none too easy task, consist of suites of large and lofty rooms opening on charming little gardens which overlook the valley. A vaulted corridor, over four hundred feet long, divides the chapel and cloisters on the right from the cells on the left, its grated windows framing lovely bits of this earthly paradise. Coming out from the chapel, where an elaborately inlaid reading-desk and the ingenious indicator, by means of which the silent brotherhood announced themselves, are mute reminders of the former occupants of the Cartuja, the merry voices of children riding their *borricos* down the long corridor, the easy chairs placed sociably together before the cell doors, through which we get glimpses of cosey tea-tables, give one a bewildered feeling of incongruity; and if by chance we see the gray-bearded, emaciated figure, clad in long brown cassock, that sometimes steals, ghost-like, along the corridor, it only serves to intensify this feeling.

One of the kings of Mallorca, finding that the pure air of Valldemosa gave him immunity from asthma, built a royal residence here. A later king, Don Martin, presented this palace, in 1399, to the Carthusian brothers, for whom he had a great affection. The growth of the community made enlargement necessary from time to time, and a great part of the picturesque irregular pile known as La Cartuja was built within this century. But, although much of the ancient monastery has been destroyed, and the encroachments of modern life have somewhat concealed its original character, there still remain sculptured walls, doorways, and windows, and half-obliterated frescoing to tell of former glories; while from the quaint old clock-tower, roofless and without dial, bells, grown rusty from long exposure, still note with hoarse tone the passing hours. The chemist's shop is tucked away in the same dark corner, in search of which George Sand used to stumble at night through the gloomy cloisters; and while the letters of the old inscription on the ceiling, *Non in verbis, sed in herbis, fac medicamentum*, have disappeared, its spirit remains in bunches of herbs drying in one of the old guest rooms, now used as a storeroom. Considering the ferment of feeling excited at the time of George Sand's residence here, it seems strange that the location of her cell should now be a matter of doubt. Then her presence in the Cartuja was considered a "desecration." Now the rivalry between the owners of the various cells reminds us of Homer dead. Diligent inquiry has resulted in no positive evidence as to its location, and when we question the old villagers, they slowly shake their heads and reply, "No sabe."

Fear of invasion in times past, and, later, the need of cultivating every inch of soil, have huddled the village houses close together, giving dark interiors, which make a fitting background for the old women with ugly, wrinkled, pleasant faces, sitting in their doorways with their distaffs. At this season the doorstone is the centre of family life, and serves as an open book from which to read the daily annals of these simple folk. Dark-eyed, youthful St. Johns look up at us with serious glance as we pass by, and sometimes we see a benignant-looking goat step over the threshold and stand, with almost human patience, suckling a brown-limbed baby rejoicing in the freedom of a single short garment. Early and late, as we go up and down the steep, narrow streets, we hear the intermittent droning of paternosters mingled with the various sounds of industry, for this is eminently a religious village, proud of having been the birthplace of the Beata Catalina, of miracle-working fame, to whose chapel, on a pine-crowned crag above the Cartuja, the pious resort for their evening devotions.

Descendants of the old Aragonese, these peasants maintain the sturdy self-respect that characterized their ancestors. We sometimes meet on the highways a day-laborer with as haughty a mien as any hidalgo, while the maidens have the noble bearing of the Frisian woman. On the day of our arrival three peasant women came to bid us welcome. They bore themselves with a rude dignity quite refreshing, and although their unfamiliar dialect, vociferated in harvest-field tones, threatened to prove an insurmountable barrier, mutual good-will and descriptive gestures soon established an understanding. A grave, ceremonious handshaking accompanied the leave-taking, and has since been repeated with the daily delivery of milk and bread. Even in the dance this gravity of deportment is not relaxed. On the occasion of a recent festival, we secured front seats, on a plank supported by candle-boxes, in the plaza, where pine knots, placed in iron frames fastened to tall poles, smoked and blazed and threw a lurid light over the scene. The maidens, in bright petticoats, low-cut black bodices, the sleeves fastened at the elbow with rows of gold buttons, tulle head-dresses, and heavy chains of gold around neck and waist, were invited to dance by the alcalde, or mayor. The partners, with eyes fixed upon the ground, advanced, retreated, circled round each other, but never came in contact. As sugared almonds were thrown over the heads of the most graceful, it required the alcalde's most official aspect to keep the children from rushing in pell-mell, but the moment the dancing ceased there was a mad scramble. This was the only note of hilarity in the whole performance. But the dance itself! The slow, measured movement of lifted arms and hands keeping time with the graceful swaying of the supple figures that seemed to float above the ground, the quickened step as a wild song rose above the rhythmic clicking of the castanets, skilfully used by the dancers, the lithe spring into the air, and, as the song abruptly ceased, the suddenly stiffened muscles of outstretched arm and pointed foot, as if touched by magic charm—all this needs a winged pen to describe.

The *predios*, or farm estates, tilted down the mountain slopes, or perched on bluffs commanding the sea, conceal unsuspected material for the artist. The cluster of buildings forms a small, isolated hamlet, picturesque in detail, each dwelling having an individuality of its own, several rising in massive towers which give a mediæval character to the whole. Here are giant olive-presses, dating back nearly three centuries, still in use; but he who would

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be tranquil, let him not investigate too closely under what conditions the fruit of the olive is made to yield its rich golden oil. Wherever we go among the country or village people, we hear the kindly "Bon di' tenga," and the *casa* with all it contains is placed at our disposal with true Spanish grandiloquence of word and gesture. This we know is the usual exaggeration of courtesy, yet, accompanied as it is by a frank, engaging smile and a genuine offer of fruit, we are not disposed to quarrel with formulas.

Centuries of patient toil have developed wonderful skill in agriculture, notwithstanding the use of primitive, awkward implements. A straight, clean-cut furrow follows the one-handled Arab plough, and the rich soil grows light under the heavy *caveg*, the island implement which unites in itself the functions of shovel, hoe, and pickaxe. The grain is all cut by hand, and threshed only on open-air threshing-floors, prepared in accordance with Virgil's instructions, where, above the regular hoof-beat, as the fluted stone rollers are dragged over the floor, rises the monotonous chant of the driver, with a melancholy cadence calling to mind old plantation melodies. A breezy day is chosen for the winnowing, which is as primitive a process as the threshing; and when the harvesting is over, and the trees have felt the pruning-hook, the rubbish is carefully piled into heaps with limestones in the midst, and slowly burned for the fertilizing ashes. These summer days are long days of unwearied toil, but as the sun dips into the sea the angelus sounds from the hermitage on the heights above; and when the evening star appears and the glow-worms light their diamond lamps in the hollow olive trees, a wonderful stillness broods over the earth, broken only by the shepherd's pipe blending in pleasant symphony with the tinkling sheep bells.

The shriek of the locomotive that was to carry us to Manacor, the starting-point for the caves of Drach and Artá, sounded strangely dissonant to ears grown accustomed to Arcadian sounds, yet we were conscious of a pleasant thrill of excitement as we "embarked," as Spaniards say, for our first ride on the only railroad in the islands. It passes through extensive vineyards, where low, sturdy vines support heavy clusters of the rich grapes that go to make the golden-brown wine of Binisalem. Ripe figs were drying in the sun, and the almonds, having burst their purple husks, were being dislodged from the trees by means of long, slender canes. Inca, a little above the railroad, makes a striking picture with its background of bleak, sterile mountains, its ancient-looking buildings and lofty palms; and, faintly discerned on an almost inaccessible crag, the ruins of a castle, the last stronghold of the Moors, seem to mock at nature's apparently impregnable defences.

The numerous windmills of Manacor give it a picturesque aspect from a distance, but the enchantment is dispelled on near approach, for the town, which is the second in importance in Mallorca, is pervaded by a dreary air of commonplaceness relieved by nothing to detain the traveller. At the end of an hour's drive through a rather desolate country overgrown with heather and lentisk, we came to a pretty little basin of the Mediterranean, where a few staringly new houses suggested the nucleus of a watering-place. Crossing the bed of a winter torrent, a short walk led to the entrance of the cave of El Drach (the dragon), low and dark, and unpleasantly suggestive of the fabulous monster. But, after the first plunge into darkness, our attention was absorbed by the beautiful, lace-like formations, some of delicate opal tints, and the still, deep pools of water in which, like a magic mirror, were reflected our lights and even the fire and flame of the guide's cigarette. Of the names given to different portions, that of "Lago de las Delicias" (Lake of Delights) seemed most fitting. There are still unexplored chambers, and deeps from which, on casting in a stone, come back faint and fainter reverberations until an ominous splash denotes that it has found a resting-place in water that would seem to be below the level of the adjacent sea. The whole interior, which it took nearly two hours to explore, left an impression of fairy beauty which even the dread "Purgatorio" failed to obscure.

Of quite a different character are the caves of Artá. We made an early start from Manacor, for the road is long and rough and the caves extensive. Passing through the village of Artá, which is not uninteresting, at some distance beyond we left the carriage and walked along by the sea, where white lilies with golden hearts were blossoming in the sand, climbed a steep, wooded hill, and, creeping round a sharp angle hung over the waves, found ourselves before a magnificent rocky portal in the sea face of a perpendicular cliff, and fifty metres above the water. The promise of the entrance is well fulfilled as we penetrate the interior. Everything is on a massive scale, and so different as in no way to suggest a comparison with the neighboring cave of Drach. Here there is no soft coloring; all is white and black, and water is absent. Stalactites and stalagmites meet to form gigantic columns, and glistening white banners of a fantastic reality are flung out high above our heads in the obscurity of lofty halls whose gloomy recesses the flare of the Roman candles only serves to make more strange and fathomless. In one instance a lofty roof is supported by a single slender column rising up in the centre of the great chamber to a height of twenty-two metres, and bearing a striking resemblance to the stem of a giant palm. After a stay of three hours in these underground workshops of nature, the sudden vision of the smiling blue sea before us as we emerged from the cave deepened an impression that will remain long in the memory.

S. G.

Correspondence.

THE WEST IN THE SENATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In several issues of the *Nation* during the past summer, and particularly in the one of August 31, you have complained most bitterly of the votes cast by the new States of the West in the Senate. Knowing that you aim to be just and fair with your readers, however much you may differ with the people of the West upon the silver question, I desire to call attention to a few facts disclosed by the Census of 1890.

Two of "the six youngest States of the Union in the Northwest," South Dakota and Washington, have a total population of 678,198. Two of the original thirteen States, Delaware and Rhode Island, have a population of 513,999. Have not the people of Colorado, who number more than any one of the four, and almost as many as the two Eastern States combined, as much right to complain of Delaware and Rhode Island as you to complain of South Dakota and Washington?

Three of "the six youngest States of the Union in the Northwest," the two Dakotas, and Washington, have a total population of 860,917. Three of the original thirteen States, Delaware, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire, have a population of 890,529. Were all these six States fully represented in the Senate, the population for each Senator would be practically the same; with Washington deprived of one Senator, the Eastern States have a decided advantage. The Senators from the two New England States and Delaware are solid, of course, for unconditional repeal; it remains to be seen whether the five Senators for the Northwest will vote together in favor of silver coinage.

"The six youngest States of the Union in the Northwest, the two Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, and Washington," have a total population of 1,138,166. Six of the oldest States of the Union, Delaware, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, Florida, and Oregon, have a total population of 1,928,140. Six of the largest States of the Union, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Missouri, and Texas, have a population of 23,669,241. The disparity between the first two groups is insignificant when either is compared with the last. Missouri and Texas, with a population of nearly five millions, practically united in favor of the free coinage of silver, have as much right to complain of the Eastern group voting against silver as Ohio and Illinois, with seven millions of people, have to complain of the Western group voting for it. As a matter of fact, each of the nine Senators now representing the Western group has practically as large a constituency behind him as each of the twelve Senators coming from the other group.

Senators Teller and Wolcott represent a larger constituency than is to be found in Delaware, New Hampshire, Rhode Island (three of the original thirteen States), Vermont, Florida, or Oregon. For the whole Union, Colorado ranks 31 in population, leading thirteen of her sisters; while Delaware stands only 42, one better than the Territory of New Mexico, and two below the Territory of Utah; Florida ranks 32, New Hampshire 33, Rhode Island 35, Vermont 36, and Oregon 38.

The four silver States, Colorado, Montana, Idaho, and Nevada, have a total population of 674,503. Four of the Atlantic-coast States, Delaware, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont, have a total population of 1,222,951. The four largest States of the Union have a total population of 18,754,534. The disparity between the silver group and our old New England sisters is scarcely noticeable when either total is compared with the four leaders.

When the contest on tariff reform comes, and the great States of Texas and Missouri, Kentucky, and Georgia, backed by the teeming millions of the South and West, are clamoring for relief, aided by your powerful voice, and we find these pocket boroughs of the East—Rhode Island, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Delaware—are all solid for the protected barons, the shoe will be pinching the other foot. No section will more gladly change from the present method of representation in the Senate to one based on population than the West. Fifty years from to-day, if a change is not sooner made, it will be the West and South complaining of the strength in the Senate wielded by rotten boroughs of the East, rather than the East finding fault with the thinly settled States of the West. In the meantime neither section can justly complain of the other.

W. H. Bryant.

Denver, Col., October 3, 1893.

[The inequality of the original thir-

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teen States was, of course, deplored from the beginning, since the territorial limitations rendered it permanent for the very smallest. Still, their integrity had to be guaranteed in the Constitution, and it must be said that every one of them has more than maintained its population, while Rhode Island stands at the very front in point of density. Had either Rhode Island or Delaware, like Nevada, steadily fallen off in the number of its inhabitants after its admission to the Union, there can be no doubt that the country would long ago have been moved to abolish these States by annexation, using all possible pressure to that end. The constitutional situation would also have been felt to be scandalous if Delaware and Rhode Island, which have generally been in opposition, had in combination held the balance of power in the Senate, or had availed themselves of the license of the Senate rules to defeat a vote upon a measure overwhelmingly passed by the lower house, and notoriously commanding a majority of the suffrages of the Senate itself.

We cannot allow that the population of Missouri and Texas are "practically united in favor of the free coinage of silver." Finally, we admonish our correspondent that "the contest on tariff reform" has come now, and that the overthrow of the existing protection to silver-mining is the necessary first step in coming to close quarters with McKinley and his abominations.—Ed. Nation.]

JUDICIAL POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The court of North Carolina has the distinction of sharing with Rhode Island the honor (given by a correspondent in your issue of September 28 to Rhode Island and Virginia) of having, some years before the federal court, held that a court has the power to declare null and void an act of the Legislature.

In 1785 the Assembly of North Carolina passed an act entitled "An act to secure and quiet in their possession all such persons who have purchased, or may hereafter purchase, lands, etc., which have been sold, or may hereafter be sold, by commissioners of forfeited estates, legally appointed for that purpose." The act also required the court, in all cases where the defendant made affidavit that he held the disputed property under a sale from such a commissioner of forfeited estate, *to dismiss the suit on motion*.

Such a case (Bayard vs. Singleton, Martin's Rep., vol. i., pp. 42–48) came before the court at the May term, 1786. The judges had the nerve to deny the motion to dismiss. Justice Ashe observed, among other things, that "the people of this country, with a general union of sentiment, by their delegates, met in congress, and formed that system or those fundamental principles comprised in the Constitution, dividing the powers of government into separate and distinct branches, to wit: the legislative, the judicial, and executive, and assigning to each several and distinct powers, and prescribing their several limits and boundaries." We find added to his remarks, "Curia advisare vult." At the November term of the following year the court took up the case, and decided that the act above alluded to was unconstitutional and void. And so we may say the North Carolina court intimated an intention to hold to the doctrine mentioned several months before the decision of the Rhode Island court, though the decision was not rendered till the year following.

The justices sitting at the hearing of this case were Ashe, Spencer, and Williams. The last-named occupied the place resigned by James Iredell. Iredell was counsel for the plaintiff in this case. He wrote a strong pamphlet vindicating the power of the judiciary. The judges were eventually sustained by public opinion. Iredell was afterwards Associate Justice of the Supreme Court. It is not impossible that this decision and the weight of Judge Iredell's opinion may have had some influence on the court in arriving at the decision of Marbury vs. Madison, as well as the fact, mentioned by your correspondent, that the doctrine was recognized by Chancellor Wythe, under whom Chief Justice Marshall studied law.

Wm. Myers Little.

Charlotte, N. C., September 30, 1893.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Rombauer's communication in your issue of September 28 relative to Wythe's influence on Marshall called to my mind some rather copious notes that I made a few years ago in the same connection, and I concluded that a résumé of the results then obtained might be not uninteresting to your readers. I write without access to many of the authorities cited, but I made my notes with considerable care.

It is curious that while many writers upon our constitutional law and history have recognized the importance of the famous case of Trevett vs. Weeden, few of them have seemed to be aware of the fact that that case was by no means the first in which a judicial body held an act of a State Legislature to be unconstitutional. Prof. Henry Wade Rogers, in his preface to that admirable work, 'Constitutional History of the United States as Seen in the Development of American Law,' for which our thanks are due to the University of Michigan, has not fallen into this mistake. He refers to the well-known New Jersey case of Holmes and Ketchum vs. Walton, tried in 1780, which, I believe, was first unearthed by President Austin Scott of Rutgers in a paper read by him before the American Historical Association (see their Papers, vol. ii). Prof. Rogers next refers to Trevett vs. Weeden (1786), and concludes by citing the South Carolina case of Bowman vs. Middleton decided in 1792. It is strange that he says nothing of certain Virginia cases which must have been familiar to Marshall and have influenced his decisions far more than the three cases named above. These cases have been ably discussed by President Lyon G. Tyler in his 'Letters and Times of the Tylers,' but they are well worth study in the original reports.

In 1782, four years before the decision in Trevett vs. Weeden, the case of the Commonwealth vs. Caton (4 Call, pp. 5-21) was tried in the General Court. The constitutionality of a pardon to traitors authorized by the lower house of the Assembly alone was involved and was denied by the court. Edmund Pendleton was the only judge who seemed chary of expressing an opinion; George Wythe was as thoroughgoing in the expression of his as Marshall could have been. He said:

"Nay, more, if the whole Legislature, an event to be deprecated, should attempt to overleap the bounds prescribed to them by the people, I, in administering the public justice of the country, will meet the united powers at my seat in this tribunal; and, pointing to the Constitution, will say to them, Here is the limit of your authority; hither shall you go, but no further."

Whatever may be thought of the Canute-like eloquence of the justly distinguished chancellor, it can hardly be denied that Marshall, who studied law under him, must have been influenced by his views on this important matter. It may be noted that John Blair, who was one of the first justices appointed by Washington to the Supreme Court, was equally outspoken in his opinion.

The next case in Virginia occurred in 1788, two years after Trevett vs. Weeden. The Legislature had passed an act (Hening xii., 532, 644, 764) by which duties in the new district courts were devolved upon the judges of the Court of Appeals, who already had duties in the General Court and in the courts of admiralty and chancery. This increase of duties without a corresponding increase of salaries was deemed unconstitutional by the judges, and they determined to protest, although conscious that the case was a delicate one since their own pockets were involved. They, therefore, drew up what Mr. Tyler rightly terms "a most elevated and dignified remonstrance" (printed in 4 Call and 1 Virginia Cases), which was transmitted to the Legislature at a special session (June 23 to June 30, 1788) called by Gov. Edmund Randolph for the purpose of reconsidering the act. The Legislature promptly repealed the obnoxious act, but at their regular meeting, in the fall of the same year, they thoughtlessly passed a new law reconstituting the Court of Appeals and practically removing all the old judges. This was plainly unconstitutional; but the judges were now as graceful as the Assembly had been, for they resigned their positions while protesting against the principles of the act (Tyler's 'Tylers' i., pp. 175–6). It is obvious that we have here no judicial decision, properly speaking, but we certainly have a very emphatic statement of the principle of constitutional law under discussion.

In 1793 the General Court was confronted with a very similar question in Kamper vs. Hawkins (1 Virginia Cases, p. 20). This case involved the constitutionality of an act of the previous year, which gave judges of the General Court, when sitting in district courts, powers belonging to chancery. The court pronounced the act to be unconstitutional, all of the judges delivering long and weighty opinions. Not one is at all in doubt as to the propriety of declaring acts of legislature unconstitutional. One, Judge Henry, shows that he knew as clearly as any modern publicist the difference between an omnipotent parliament and a legislature serving under a constitution. Judge Roane stated that he had been doubtful on the point, but that his opinion had changed. Judge Tyler, too, delivered an excellent opinion, which his grandson has done well to reproduce at length. He saw as clearly as Marshall did afterwards that a judge can decide on the constitutionality of a law only when it is brought to his notice in a definite case; in his own words, he would not "in an extra-judicial manner assume the right to negative a law." Finally, Judge Tucker delivered an opinion which seemed to me, when I read it some years ago, to be but little less lucid than Marshall's far more celebrated opinion in Marbury vs. Madison. I write, of course, as an amateur in legal matters and subject to correction.

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We are now brought down to the case of Page vs. Pendleton, cited by Mr. Rombauer, for which I wish to thank him, as it had escaped my notice. We see that from 1782 there is a chain of cases in Virginia in which the great doctrine of the right of the judiciary to pronounce on the constitutionality of laws is laid down with ever-increasing force and clearness. We need not forget the colonial precedents (Wilson's 'The State,' p. 474; Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' chap. xxiii.) that helped these early judges, but we must remember that it took some boldness to apply those precedents after the changes brought about by the Revolution, just as it took some boldness in Marshall to apply State precedents to such a body as the Congress of the United States. That he did extend and apply these precedents is evident, for the effect upon him of the cases cited above must have been great. They took place while his mind was in the formative period, and he had been Wythe's pupil only two years before the latter delivered his opinion in Commonwealth vs. Caton. It is, I believe, generally conceded that Marshall was not a great lawyer in the sense of being widely read; he was, therefore, thrown all the more upon precedents familiar to him from his early training and practice in Virginia. His essential greatness is not diminished by the acknowledgment of his indebtedness to such men as Wythe, Blair, Henry, Tyler, and Tucker.

W. P. Trent.

Sewanee, Tenn., October 1st, 1893.

P. S.—I have assumed above that Commonwealth vs. Caton (1782) is the first Virginia case of the kind under discussion, and Holmes vs. Walton (1780) the first case in the United States. This is not incontestably true. Judge Tucker, in his edition of Blackstone (Part I., Appendix, p. 293), published in 1803, expressly stated that in the case of the attainder passed by the Virginia Legislature in 1778 upon a notorious freebooter, Josiah Philips, the General Court refused to pass sentence without trial, and put the prisoner "upon his trial, according to the ordinary course of law." He then drew the conclusion—"This is a decisive proof of the importance of the separation of the powers of government, and of the independence of the judiciary; a dependent judiciary might have executed the law, whilst they execrated the principles on which it was founded."

This case of Josiah Philips is one of the most remarkable that have ever occurred in the United States. It has been treated, but without the necessary fulness, in the lives of Patrick Henry by Wirt and William Wirt Henry, and was the subject of more than one of Jefferson's letters. It played an important and curious part in the Virginia Convention of 1788, and is probably the most typical case of attainder known to our judicial annals. If Judge Tucker is right, it is also a case of great constitutional importance, as it antedates Holmes vs. Walton by two years. I have in manuscript a laborious analysis of the whole case, an abstract of which I had the honor of reading before the American Historical Association three years ago. In this analysis I have given my reasons for believing that Judge Tucker was mistaken in his assertion that the General Court actually pronounced upon the constitutionality of the act of attainder against Philips—reasons of an historical nature, and wholly independent of those laid down subsequently by the Supreme Court in the famous case of Cooper vs. Telfair (4 Dallas, 14), in which it was held that, unless bills of attainder were specially prohibited by the State Constitution, the right to make use of them inhered in the State legislatures prior to the adoption of the Federal Constitution. I cannot trespass upon the patience of your readers by detailing these reasons here; but it seems proper to refer to the case of Philips as a possible instance of judicial overruling of a legislative act, on account of the weight that must always attach to the statements of so able a jurist as Judge Tucker. I may at some future time make bold to submit to you a brief account of this curious and important case.

W. P. T.

THE DIVISION OF WORDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to state that the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* is printed at the Riverside Press, Cambridge, and that the system of syllabic division adopted in its pages is the system which has been in operation there for many years. To imply, as your esteemed correspondent "H. U., '31," implies, that the *Magazine*, by printing *prom-ise* instead of *pro-mise*, or *reg-ister* instead of *re-gister*, lays itself open to the charge of illiteracy, seems to me to be as unjustifiable as to impute illiteracy to Emerson, Longfellow, and Lowell—not to mention living authors—who had their books put in type at this same Riverside Press.

The fact is, that in this method of dividing words one method prevails in England and another in America; being Americans, we follow the usage which Webster and Worcester and other dictionaries have warranted. "H. U., '31," regards Lindley Murray's rule as infallible; Americans do not. Lindley Murray's method is as arbitrary as ours, and it would require but little pains to show incongruities in both methods. The main purpose of any method is to secure uniformity. "H. U., '31," suffers from a misapprehension in imagining that literacy or illiteracy in these matters depends on the adoption or rejection of English custom. Would he accuse Mr. Lowell or Prof. Norton of illiteracy because they use the American form *honor* instead of the English form *honour?* Would he imply that such scholars as Prof. Lane and Prof. Goodwin are illiterate because they do not pronounce Latin and Greek according to Oxford usage? And even in English printing-houses there is not the uniformity which "H. U., '31," supposes. In the course of a few pages of the first edition of Ruskin's 'Modern Painters,' one of the most carefully printed books which England has produced, I find such contradictions as *difference* and *refe-rence;* but not on this account would I charge Ruskin or the English with illiteracy. In short, the hyphen as a test of culture seems to be uncertain, and happily the reputation of Harvard University does not depend on so slight a thing.

I should refrain from trespassing on your space to present these self-evident facts, did I not fear that, by silence, I might appear to desire to shift your correspondent's charge of illiteracy from myself, to whom it belongs, to either Harvard University or the gentlemen who compose the council of the *Graduates' Magazine* Association.

William R. Thayer.

Cambridge, Mass., October 7, 1893.

Notes.

Roberts Bros. will shortly publish 'Public Libraries in America,' an historical and descriptive account by William I. Fletcher, Librarian of Amherst College; 'Such As They Are,' poems by Thomas W. and Mary Thacher Higginson; and 'Allegretto,' poems by Miss Gertrude Hall.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce 'The Englishman at Home: His Privileges and Responsibilities,' by Edward Porritt; a Life of the wife of Rembrandt, by Charles Knowles Bolton; and a volume of verse by E. F. Fenollosa.

'Twenty Years at Sea; or, Leaves from My Old Log-Books,' by Frederick S. Hill; 'Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan,' by Lafcadio Hearn, in two volumes; 'An Old Town by the Sea,' namely, Portsmouth, N. H., by T. B. Aldrich; and 'In Exile, and Other Stories,' by Mary Hallock Foote, are in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., together with illustrated holiday editions of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table' (illustrations by Howard Pyle); Mrs. Deland's 'Old Garden' (with more than a hundred color designs by Walter Crane); and Miss Jewett's 'Deephaven' (illustrated by Charles A. and Marcia O. Woodbury).

'From Sunrise to Sunset,' poems by Curtis Guild, is promised by Lee & Shepard.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish a diary of travel, 'In the Track of the Sun,' by Frederick D. Thompson, illustrated by Harry Fenn; Bryant's 'Poems of Nature,' a selection, with illustrations by Paul de Longpré; 'Picciola,' with copious drawings by J. T. Gueldry; and 'The Country School,' a study of New England schoolboy life, by Clifton Johnson.

The fall list of Charles Scribner's Sons includes the 'Life and Correspondence of Dean Stanley,' by R. E. Prothero and Dean Bradley; a book on New Mexican customs and types, 'The Land of Poco Tiempo,' by Charles F. Lummis; nineteen African legends picked up by Henry M. Stanley and told in 'My Dark Companions and their Strange Stories'; 'Stelligeri, and Other Essays concerning America,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; 'An Old Master, and Other Political Essays,' by Prof. Woodrow Wilson; a popular edition of the 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians'; a limited portfolio edition of 'French Illustrators,' by Louis Morin, with many reproductions after more than sixty artists; and 'Rembrandt: His Life, His Work, and His Time,' by Émile Michel, edited by Frederick Wedmore, and illustrated most abundantly with photogravures, cuts, and color reproductions.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will supply the American market with a new edition of Goldsmith's works, illustrated by Herbert Railton.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'The Beginnings of the English Romantic Movement,' by Wm. Lyon Phelps, instructor in English literature at Yale. The book gives the results of an examination of the minor literature from 1725 to 1765, with a view to tracing the early growth of English Romanticism.

We commended last spring Miss Jane Barlow's 'Irish Idylls,' with its equivocal title, which might rather suggest verse, whereas her metrical 'Bogland Studies' would by the same token have been taken for prose. We are glad to see an American edition of so pathetic, humorous, and truthful a work (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Miss Barlow launches it with a little preface by way of propitiation. The same firm renew the 'Journal of Eugénie de Guérin' in two pretty blue volumes with gilt tops, and Austin Dobson's 'Memoir of Horace Walpole,' one of the less valuable of this author's numerous productions. The third edition of Mr. Winter's 'Shakespeare's England' to bear the imprint of Macmillan & Co. is the second issue

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for the present year, but the work has been revised and wholly reset, furnished with a variety of cuts and a portrait of the author, and bound in holiday or gift-book fashion. No doubt the illustrations and the general attire will increase the popularity of this sentimental tour among literary haunts. In conjunction with the Messrs. Black, Macmillan & Co. add volumes xi. and xii. to the Dryburgh Edition of the Waverley Novels, being 'The Abbot' and 'Kenilworth,' still excelling rather in typography than in illustrations; and in conjunction with J. M. Dent & Co. extend the captivating edition of Fielding's Works by 'Tom Jones' in four volumes, with vignettes of scrupulously decent selection and design. From the Harpers we receive three more volumes in the uniform edition of William Black's novels, viz., 'White Heather,' 'Sabina Zembra,' and 'The Wise Women of Inverness.' 'Stories of the Army' is the latest in the pocket series of "Stories from *Scribner*." 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland' has been copyrighted to T. Y. Crowell & Co., perhaps as to its decorative borders and such of its illustrations as are not Tenniel's and therefore, we feel like saying, have no excuse for existence, so intimately associated in the minds of the rising generation are the original cuts and the classic text. Tenniel-and-water is, literally, what the new designs amount to, and the mixture of real and counterfeit, of process line and process wash, greatly detracts from the comeliness of the volume.

It would be hard to account for the revival of buccaneer literature except on the familiar principle that it never rains but it pours. Year before last we had Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Buccaneers and Marooners of America' and the reprint of Capt. Burney's 'History of the Buccaneers of America' Both these writers drew largely upon Esquemeling's 'Buccaneers of America' (1678), which in turn is now reprinted together with the narrative of another authority, Basil Ringrose. The volume, which is published in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons, is a handsome octavo of 500 pages, indexed and illustrated in facsimile with buccaneer portraits, scenes, charts, and coast contours. The introduction, by Henry Powell, adds little value to the work, and should not be trusted implicitly: St. Kitts was not simultaneously settled by English and French (pp. xvi, xvii.); the Mosquito Coast has not "for some time past been absorbed into the adjacent republic of Honduras" (p. xi.). Descriptions of primitive peoples, manners, and customs occasionally relieve the tale of rapine and adventure.

Superficial learning is, after all, better than ignorance, and many are the books which are written in its interest. Of this class is 'Chapters in Modern Botany,' by Prof. Geddes of University College, Dundee (Scribners). The book avowedly begins "with something rare or strange—at any rate unfamiliar," in order to avoid the "prejudice that botany deals mainly in hard names," and to awaken at once interest in the subject, so that the reader may be tempted to learn something of the forms and processes of plant-life, and at least acquaint himself with the methods of study. Accordingly, the writer begins with an account of pitcher-plants, and presently finds himself obliged to assume that somehow or other a Sarracenia has been improved into a Darlingtonia, and then he wants some experimentalist to catch a young and ambitious plant of the one genus trying to assume the form of the other. From pitcher-plants the book passes naturally to fly-traps, and from these to the wonderful man-eating (or at least dog-eating) plant of Central America, which perhaps was nothing more than some kind of a cat-brier. Later chapters deal with many phases and functions of vegetation, and are interesting reading for one who knows something of the subject already. One or two pages near the end of the book commend systematic botany as at least a subject from which accuracy in the use of language may be learned—a kind of accuracy which must have been asleep when *Monotropa Hypopitys* was called an orchid.

A less ambitious book is 'Recreations in Botany,' by Caroline A. Creevey (Harpers). At the outset the reader is warned against poison-ivy and poison-sumac, which is well; and in the second chapter the use of a botany-box, a lead-pencil, a sharp knife, and a pocket microscope is recommended, while 'Gray's Manual' must be within reach. The student is also told to look up the meaning of "obcordate" and other hard words in the glossary, and to refer occasionally to the 'Lessons.' This is surely a fair beginning, and disposes the reviewer to look leniently upon an occasional misspelled name of a plant, such as "Epiphagus" for Epiphegus, "asparinoides" for aparinoides, and "cœrula" for cœrulea. The authoress confesses to having waded, shoes and stockings off, into a swamp in search of *Arethusa bulbosa*, "though clumps of poison-sumach were growing near by," and, as an older swamp-wader knows very well, mosquitoes, snakes, and snapping-turtles may have been watching her. She may, therefore, be forgiven for saying that numbers of the Arethusa "would spring up and bloom in a single night," and for calling *Calopogon pulchellum* a barbarous name, which it really is—for does not Calopogon signify a beautiful *beard*, and is it not barbarous to force a neuter adjective to qualify a masculine noun?

The author of 'The Trees of Northeastern America' has now followed that work with 'The Shrubs of Northeastern America' (Putnams). Here the species are arranged in natural orders, and in this respect the book is better than its predecessor. The same effort is made to avoid the usual language of botany, and with the same result. One sentence is enough to quote: "In some regions, an old opinion is said still to linger, that the presence of the barberry causes blight in the grainfield." Surely some of the botanists to whom the author acknowledges his obligations could have directed him to the literature concerning the connection of *Æcidium berberidis* and *Puccinia graminis*.

In 'How to Judge a Horse,' by Capt. F. W. Bach (William R. Jenkins), we have a treatise of really practical convenience. The anatomy of the animal is so clearly explained as to make the structural and dynamic importance of the bones intelligible to the ordinary man. There is much else, upon training and driving and upon bits, saddles, stables, etc.

A vast amount of useful information is compressed into a small book entitled 'Domestic Economy,' by F. T. Paul (Longmans, Green & Co.). The author has for some time delivered an annual course of lectures at the Edge Hill Training College at Liverpool, and upon that foundation he has constructed a text-book. A great variety of subjects is treated, such as physiology, digestion, foods, dress, and hygiene, and it would not be easy to find a more convenient compendium of things which every one needs to know, but which most of us do not know exactly where to look for.

In the *Geographical Magazine* for September Mr. George N. Curzon continues his account of his journeys in Indo-China with some interesting details of the life of the Annamese. In reference to the native government, he says: "Annam exhibits the spectacle, unique in the East, of a complete decentralization of administrative and executive authority, due to the institution of a communal system which is enshrined in the customs of the people, and has long familiarized them with the liberties of self-government to which Europe is now returning." The famous Khmer ruins at Angkor he believes, contrary to the common view, to have been dedicated to "Brahmanism, pure and simple, upon which at a later date were grafted Buddhistic additions." The accompanying map, including Siam, is a reduction of the French official map published this year. The Zoutpansberg gold-fields in the northern part of the Transvaal are described by F. Jeppe, who says that, notwithstanding the great natural drawbacks, such as scarcity of water, high cost of transport and provisions, and a dangerous climate, the mines are steadily gaining. The paper is illustrated by a map showing the geological formations.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September opens with a short account of the Siamese frontier, by Mr. Coutts Trotter, accompanied by a useful map. Among the other articles are an extended notice of Mr. F. H. Newell's 'Hydrography of the Arid Regions of the United States,' and a criticism of the map contained in Mr. Curzon's recent work on Persia. We may note, however, an inconsistency in this number of the magazine itself. The port of Hué, the capital of Annam, is given by Mr. Trotter as Tourane, but in the map it is Touron; in the French official map, as given in the *Geographical Journal*, it is Turan.

The *Psychological Review*, to be published by Macmillan & Co. early next year, will be edited by Profs. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton and J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia, with a notable collaboration.

We have before us the first number of the *Proportional Representation Review*, a quarterly magazine of modest dimensions published at Chicago by the American Proportional League; also the first number of *Popular Astronomy*, whose objects we have already heralded, issued from the Goodsell Observatory of Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.; and finally the initial number of *Aeronautics*, significantly published by the *American Engineer and Railroad Journal* as a medium for one branch of the science of transportation. It opens with the proceedings of the Conference on Aerial Navigation held at Chicago on August 1-4, and closes with "Notes" of thrilling balloon trips and other pertinent items of news.

The *Publishers' Weekly* has reprinted in a neat pamphlet its Review of 'The Publishers' and other Book Exhibits at the World's Columbian Exposition,' than which we have seen none better.

At the eleventh hour the official publishers of the World's Fair, W. H. Conkey & Co., have got out a 'Revised Catalogue, Department of Fine Arts,' in which the pictures are numbered consecutively as they appear on the walls. There are no memoranda of the pictures themselves, but instead we have portraits of the several commissioners. There is further an index of exhibitors, and lists of judges, awards, etc.

The International Copyright Conference which was to have been held this year in Paris, has been postponed till next year at the request of France. Last month, however, the

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Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale met at Barcelona, having copyright for its entire programme, and we hope to be able to give some report of its doings at no distant date.

The regular courses leading to an M.D. degree at the Medical School of Johns Hopkins University opened on October 5 with a class of sixteen, of whom three are women. The high standard set by Johns Hopkins for admission to this school has, for the first time in the United States, secured a band of medical students each with a bachelor's degree from some reputable college. Of the thirteen men, Johns Hopkins supplies four, Yale three, Harvard two, and Amherst, Swarthmore, Virginia Agricultural College, and the University of Wisconsin each one. The women are graduates respectively from Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley. A most encouraging feature in connection with this important step in medical education is the number and grade of the institutions from which these students have been drafted. The fact, moreover, that eleven of the men in this pioneer class come from colleges not co-educational, disposes at once of a current prophecy that the admission or presence of women "would keep away male graduates of leading conservative institutions."

The far-seeing Bürgermeister of Oberammergau, whose sound municipal management and forethought for the comfort of the numberless visitors to his modest community brought him well-earned fame in 1890, is not allowing his people to grow rusty in the exercise of their unusual talent. Under his direction, a drama treating of the life and death of St. Vitus is being performed by the villagers during the autumn relaxation of their hardy and laborious lives. The play is by Herr Molitor, and its pleasantly rhythmical title is "Die Rose von Sicilien." With Bürgermeister Lang as director, aided by his innately artistic fellow-actors of the Passion Play, it is safe to assume that the gifted peasants of this Bavarian highland will have lost none of their prestige when their village next becomes the centre of universal curiosity and excitement, which the modern temper seems to demand that each summer shall now supply in one part of the world or another.

Mr. George C. Foulk, whose death by acute cerebral congestion, near Miyanoshita, Japan, has been reported, is one of the few Americans who have helped to make Corea known to the world. As one of the junior officers of the United States Navy, he became, while on the Japan station, fluent in the language of Nippon, and gained some knowledge of Corean. Accompanying the Corean embassy to this country in 1883, he acted as interpreter, and on returning was naval attaché to the United States Legation at Séoul. For several months he was in sole charge. He made excursions in places remote and difficult of access, studying especially the military and political systems of the recently hermit kingdom. The results of these studies are to be found in a masterly series of papers in the United States Foreign Relations for 1885. In the outbreak of 1884, while in the interior, he barely escaped with his life. Resigning from the navy, and marrying a Japanese wife, he settled in Kioto as professor of mathematics in the Doshisha University. The loss of this promising scholar is to be greatly lamented.

The friends of Mrs. Rebecca Lloyd Brünnow will hear with regret of her death, which occurred on July 6, at her summer residence, Châlet Beauval, near Vevey, Switzerland. She was the daughter of Henry P. Tappan, first Chancellor of the University of Michigan, and will be remembered by her translations of Victor von Scheffel's "Der Trompeter von Säkkingen" and "Bergpsalmen." The last production from her pen was a poem entitled "F. B. In Memoriam," and privately printed; a loving tribute to her deceased husband, the well-known astronomer.

—In a recent number of the London *Times* there is a strikingly clear and somewhat startling statement of the causes and extent of the recent religious riots in India. They were not confined to the streets of Bombay, but the fanatical movement of which they were the expression has spread widely throughout northern India. Early in the summer in certain districts in the northwestern provinces circular letters were addressed secretly to each village, "apparently in some cases to almost every Hindu household," calling on the able-bodied men to assemble at a fixed place on the day of the Muhammadan festival to prevent the sacrifice of cows. In obedience to this summons, in one district alone armed mobs of Hindus "assembled at thirty-four preconcerted centres in numbers varying from 100 to 4,000 men," and not only rescued the sacrificial cows, but beat the sacrificers and plundered their homesteads. This movement has been greatly stimulated by the Cow Protection Society, which in the nine years of its existence has grown into a new power in India. By pamphlets, public meetings, and through the native press, it urges the protection of the cow not only on account of its sanctity, but also on the economic grounds of the diminishing and deteriorating of the cattle through their use for food and sacrifices. The society has headquarters associations in different parts of India, with branches in the great cities and "a vast irregular army of sympathizing local bodies." Added to these is the multitude of Hindu devotees and religious mendicants who wander over India preaching the sanctity of the animal which still forms the symbol of orthodox Hinduism. The effect of this propaganda is that the feeling between the Hindus and Muhammadans has become electric, and any accidental conflict may bring about an explosion.

—In an interesting paper entitled "King John and the Abbot of Bury," which Mr. Thomas Arnold contributed to the June number of the *Contemporary Review*, occurs this passage: "The body of [Abbot] Samson was laid, *doubtless with due funeral rites*, in a small burial close, 'in pratello,' near the monastery, whence, as we are afterwards informed, it was translated at the end of two years and a half into the chapter-house." Now Abbot Samson died December 30, 1211, at a time when England, as Mr. Arnold himself tells us, "lay under the great interdict imposed upon her by Pope Innocent III.," etc. The words we have italicized seem to have been written in forgetfulness of the fact that funeral rites were among the things of which interdicted countries were deprived. It is true that, in some cases, clerical persons, as also beggars, strangers, and infants, were excepted from this part of the Interdict; but we have the express testimony of the annals that such was not the case in this particular Interdict. We will cite for it only Matthew Paris ('Hist. Angliæ,' anno 1208): "Quod [sc. interdictum], sicut in authentico Domini Papæ expressum habetur, *non obstantibus privilegiis* ab omnibus est inviolabiliter observatum. Cessaverunt itaque in Anglia omnia ecclesiastica sacramenta, præter solummodo confessionem et viaticum in ultima necessitate et baptisma parvulorum, *Corpora quoque defunctorum de civitatibus et villis efferebantur et more canum in biviis et fossatis sine orationibus et sacerdotum ministerio sepeliebantur.*" This leads us to understand why Abbot Samson was buried "in pratello"—a piece of probably unconsecrated meadow-land. The explanation is made exceedingly probable by the time of the translation of the remains to the chapter-house. The Interdict was laid upon England in 1208, and was removed in 1214, after six years and one month—just about two years and a half after the Abbot's burial in unconsecrated ground.

—Dr. Karl Bücher, who gained so deserved a reputation by his work of some six years ago upon the population of Frankfort-on-Main in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, has just put together in book form half-a-dozen recent lectures under the title 'Die Entstehung der Volkswirtschaft' (Tübingen: Laupp, 1893). Of these one is a popular summary of the results of his investigations into the mediæval life of Frankfort, in which, it will be observed, he abides firmly by his much-attacked opinions on the small population of the cities. Of the others the most striking are the two which attempt to sketch, one the whole current of economic development down to the present, the other the sequence of industrial systems. Both are vigorous pieces of writing, putting a good many things in a new light, and furnish a welcome relief from the somewhat narrow formulæ of most writers on the subject. But even Bücher's ambitious formulation of economic progress fails to cover anything like the whole field; it cannot aid clearness of thought, for instance, to lump together all the methods of production and distribution which existed before the rise of the mediæval town under the title of "The Isolated Household." Moreover, one cannot help thinking that his attention has been too exclusively directed to urban life, and that he pays too little regard to agrarian conditions. He certainly thinks himself more original than he is; for most of what he tells us had already been said in another shape by Schmoller. Why he should go out of his way to have a fling at the economists of the historical school, and to express his sense of the value of the deductive method, is a little hard to say—possibly it would be explained by the inner university history of the last few years; for Bücher's own admirable work is after the best manner and in the best spirit of the historical school, and where the generalizations of the economists he criticises are faulty, they are to be mended—as his own procedure shows—not by more analysis, but by deeper and wider historical knowledge.

—M. Émile Deschanel, professor and Senator, literary man and politician, has written a two-volume book on Lamartine, who was also in his day a literary man and a politician. Having proved to his satisfaction, in his well-known volumes on the romanticism of the classic French writers, that romanticism antedates Rousseau, De Staël, and Chateaubriand, M. Deschanel, in these two very interesting volumes, proposes to raise Lamartine to the highest pinnacle of glory, and to prove that idealism, and not realism or naturalism, "is the master of the world." This is a large task, and one which, to most students of literature, will seem impossible of accomplishment. The days are gone by when idealism such as Lamartine embodies can rule minds. That the sentiment in his works, the beauty of much of his verse, the pathos of more than one of his poems—the famous "Lac," the nearly equally famous "Crucifix," the "Vallon," and

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some others—will always compel admirers, must be conceded. But that Lamartine will ever again sway minds and influence literature as he unquestionably did when at the apogee of his fame, is a forlorn hope indeed. Much of his work has already perished, more will disappear in days to come, and the "Swan," as he called himself, will be read in part only, and in very small part. Nevertheless, M. Deschanel's work is not only acceptable, it is useful. His enthusiasm for the poet may not be shared by the reader, but his study of Lamartine's career and his analysis of his prose and verse writings will prove convenient for reference and for correction of some legendary blunders, justified, so far as public acceptance of and belief in them go, by the fact that Lamartine himself is responsible for many of them. It is by means of the poet's correspondence that M. Deschanel has corrected these errors, and were this the sum of his service he would be entitled to gratitude. He has done much more: laying aside a large measure of his enthusiasm, he has frankly noted faults and defects as well as beauties and qualities. After reading the "Harmonies," "Jocelyn," or "La Chute d'un Ange," M. Deschanel's comments on these poems strike one as just and moderate. Further, he has not forgotten the political side of Lamartine's career, and the fulness with which he describes it enables the reader to understand Lamartine better than he could if he looked at the poet alone.

TWO BOOKS ON ANCIENT CONSTITUTIONS.

The City-State of the Greeks and Romans: A Survey Introductory to the Study of Ancient History. By Warde Fowler, M.A., Fellow and Sub-Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

History of Federal Government in Greece and Italy. By Edward A. Freeman, edited by J. B. Bury, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. [First edition, published 1863, entitled 'History of Federal Government from the Foundation of the Achaian League to the Disruption of the United States of America.'] Vol. I. General Introduction. History of the Greek Federations. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

BOTH of these books serve to remind us of the unique position occupied by the history of the State among studies pursued at Oxford, the *alma mater* of so many living statesmen. Mr. Warde Fowler's 'The City-State' is an expansion of lectures recently given at Oxford to pupils reading in the school of Literæ Humaniores, while Mr. Bury's edition of the 'History of Federal Government' makes once more accessible an early work of the late Prof. Freeman, whose name is associated with the remarkable development of historical study which has characterized the Oxford of the last thirty years. If Mr. Fowler in his "biography" of the ancient City-State gives us the last word, Prof. Freeman's History contained in its introductory chapter the first word, of the Oxford school on the working of ancient democratic and oligarchical institutions. This being the case, it is interesting to note how fully both writers agree in all essentials, not only with each other, but with Grote and Thirlwall. Thirlwall, indeed, serves as Freeman's constant guide when he deals with the Achæan League, his main theme; and in the picture of the City-State given by both our authors, Grote's favorable view of Athenian democracy is confirmed and justified, though it receives certain rectifications and qualifications at the hands of each.

Prof. Freeman has gone out of his way to justify the rejection by Acanthus and other towns of the terms of alliance offered by Olynthus. They need not, he affirms, have been actuated, as Grote supposes, merely by a blind attachment to their own existence as independent City-States, for it is by no means clear that a really free and equal Federal relation was proposed, and, whatever the proposal, it was made at the sword's point. Freeman contends, therefore, that Grote made far too much of the Olynthian League. But his real grievance is that, having made much of the Arcadian League, Grote closes his history and excludes all account of the Achæan League from its pages. In this matter he maintains that Grote looks at everything from a purely Athenian point of view. "In Mr. Grote's view, Athens has become contemptible; the autonomous city is no longer the single type of Grecian Government. Therefore Grecian history has come to an end; or, at all events, Mr. Grote has no heart to continue it." Mr. Fowler would probably not quarrel seriously with this criticism passed upon Grote, for a summary sketch of the Achæan League forms a portion of his account of the influences which brought about the dissolution of the City-State; and his introductory chapter contains a timely plea in favor of regarding—at least for the study of constitutional history—the career of Greece and Rome as a unit. This involves some attention to the history of a period which brought Greece and Rome into contact. But Mr. Fowler nowhere countenances the mood of indignation and impatience with which the historian of federalism chronicles Roman interference in the later days of the Achæan League. This interference was one of the steps towards a reconstitution of politics out of which the modern State and federalism as constituted to-day have arisen. To Freeman writing thirty years ago, the Romans in Achæa seemed like the Austrians still lingering at Venice. He was too much influenced by the prevailing movement in favor of nationalities to have a clear vision in the affairs of "the Greece of Polybius." Had it been otherwise he might have found that period as uninteresting for the historian of Greece as it seemed to Grote.

A far more fundamental rectification of Grote (it can hardly be termed dissent from him) is contained in Mr. Fowler's protest against accepting as decisive the condemnation of Athenian democracy by Plato, Aristotle, and Isocrates, "who knew Athens only after the gifted and animated population of the golden age had been thinned down sadly by war and pestilence." He trenchantly urges that it is "not scientific to judge of the workings of Athenian institutions in the fifth century B. C. by the opinions of men who knew them only as worked by a degenerate population in the fourth." Grote felt this, and based his account of democracy more or less upon it. Indeed, the clear apprehension of this truth which we now have is chiefly due to Grote, but nevertheless he does not embody a clear and consistent acceptance of it in his account of the Sophists and of the trial of Socrates.

The clearer apprehension in all their bearings of certain leading characteristics of the Greek and Roman City-State has been slowly worked out during the last thirty years until every scholar can see, with Mr. Fowler, that the differences between it and the modern State are such as to make them specifically different. A recognition of this alteration in the modern point of view is brought home to us by the strange effect of Freeman's contrasting the two species under the respective designations of the "small State" and the "large State." Nothing in his excellent definitions can be quarrelled with, but no one who attached as much importance as he did to the niceties of terminology, would ever, in the present state of knowledge, be content with the qualifications "small" and "large" to cover the difference as now established. In this respect, as well as in the political atmosphere gathered around the 'History of Federal Government' by Freeman's characteristically passionate allusions to passing events, his book is linked to an order of European politics which has passed away, whereas the reflections by the way contained in Mr. Fowler's book belong to the political world of the present day. In such allusions his 'City-State' does not greatly abound, but a certain number are necessary, not only for the presentation of his theme, but also for accomplishing his educational purpose—to stimulate his pupils' interest and widen their historical horizon. A comparison of such allusions in these two books affords striking illustrations of the way in which the march of contemporary events necessarily controls our reading of past history, and, by constantly shifting our point of view, presents antiquity in one perspective after another.

When Freeman wrote, Louis Napoleon Buonaparte (as he always spelt the alien usurper's name) had just perpetrated his Coup d'État, Hungary and Venice were still oppressed by the Austrian Archduke, who had assumed "the portentous title of Emperor of Austria." Accordingly, he is concerned to maintain that the right equivalent of τύραννος is *emperor* in its modern acceptation. The history of France for him is a succession of usurpations on the part of the kings, tyrants, and emperors of Paris, who have encroached upon "the old realms of Germany and Burgundy." England was evidently Freeman's beau ideal of a well-built modern State, as is shown by words which sound strangely in the present constitutional crisis. They are indeed all the more remarkable considering the pronounced home-rule attitude subsequently taken up by the writer: "No one could wish to cut up our United Kingdom into a Federation, to invest English counties with the rights of American States, or even to restore Scotland and Ireland to the quasi-Federal position which they held before their respective Unions." Elsewhere the writer laughs at Wales, saying: "It has been gravely declared at a Welsh Eisteddfod that her Majesty is properly the Queen of Wales, with the province of England annexed. However this be, the province and the kingdom have shown no tendencies towards separation for several centuries." Napoleon's Coup d'État inspired our author with the feeling that "a great capital, even in a consolidated State, has a strong tendency to be a great evil." In a Federal State this danger is so much enhanced that Freeman would apparently dispense with capitals in such States. Thebes and the Bœotian League are his warning example, and in describing the reconstitution of the enlarged but moribund Achæan League by Philopœmen, he approves heartily of the abolition of the old capital, Aigion, adding that Philopœmen "understood Federal principles too well to give the League the curse of a capital anywhere else."

The modern point of view inevitably occupied by Mr. Fowler is strikingly different from Freeman's. The angle of his vision has been determined by the recent agitation for

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home rule, and by the wonderful recuperative power which France has exhibited, not to speak of the disappearance of the "man on horseback" from French politics. Mr. Fowler accordingly instances France as the typically well-knit modern State, and perhaps he goes too far in forgetting how often we have seen, as Mr. Freeman put it, "a Parisian riot accepted as a French revolution." His own definition of a modern State is wide enough to include the United States or the Swiss Republic, and the gist of it is that in this form of polity the capital city is a convenient place for carrying on the central Government. While the State is growing, the question is an open one as to where the acts of government may best be performed. In England the seat of government was long just where the King happened to be. Oxford was the English capital during the civil war. Bordeaux supplanted Paris in 1870–1871. Let any one, bearing this in mind, read Henri Martin's ingenious argument at the outset of his 'History of France,' and he will find that, by a concatenation of facts social, geographical, and historical, Paris only and Paris always is the fated and predoomed capital of France. Doubtless there are signs of a reaction, but Paris is still so much more than the first among equal French cities that France is a dangerous and rather misleading type of the modern State. The extraordinary importance attached by Frenchmen to their Paris still links the political constitution of France and Paris closely to the ancient type of the City-State, and makes France to that extent an exception among modern States. Perhaps, though, this is what Mr. Fowler means by speaking of France as the best-knit of modern States. At all events, it is certain that the altered times in which we live, when a bold and tyrannical usurpation like the third Napoleon's has become, for the moment and thanks to the late Gen. Boulanger, a ludicrous absurdity, give Mr. Fowler a point of vantage in discussing the uses and abuses of Greek tyrannies which was denied alike to Freeman and to Grote. The fact of usurpation, the circumstance that every Greek tyrant was driven beyond the ideals in which he and all members of the normal body politic were born and bred, was unwelcome in many ways and did great harm, but it brought good as well as evil. "The tyrant," says Mr. Fowler, "in the very fact that he was out of harmony with the true Greek social life, was of some use in widening its boundaries, always apt to be somewhat confining."

Mr. Fowler roundly declares that there is absolutely nothing new in his book; and certainly does confine himself most scrupulously to a presentation of views arrived at in common by the leading authorities of to day, but, nevertheless, his sketch of the part played in the realization of Athenian democracy by the tyranny of Pisistratus will be a revelation to many. It is also a privilege reserved for historians of to-day to be just and appreciative in dealing with aristocracies. Now that democracy has won its way so far that even the German Empire can get itself called a democracy, we are in a position to be fair in appreciating aristocracy in Greece and at Rome. To the aristocrats Mr. Fowler attributes the first framing of the ideal of duty to be performed manfully and gracefully for the public good. His appreciation of the differences between the Greek and the Roman genius appears best in his account of kingship. To the Greeks the personality and the breeding of a king were all in all, just as their gods were conceived of as "bodily presences rather than spiritual essences." The Romans, on the other hand, revered the power of their gods without necessarily embodying it or them in human form. Hence, the Romans "could abolish the King and yet retain his *imperium;* while at Sparta the powers were suffered to decay, the King himself remaining." After quoting the well-known passage where Herodotus describes the Spartan kings and their strangely curtailed powers, our author adds: "In this picture we see, as it were, an ancient and hallowed building, with all the graceful details of its architecture still preserved; a building which was once the central point of the common life of the State, but is now comparatively little used except for religious purposes."

Throughout his whole book Mr. Fowler enforces with constant aid from Aristotle the invaluable truth—so easy to realize in dealing with the simpler and more obvious organization of the ancient City-State, so hard to disentangle from the complex workings of a modern constitution—that a sound State is built upon sound character in its citizens, and in turn offers them the only means as yet discovered for bringing all their capacities into play. He has now and again a word to say of the modern Socialists and their ideal, which leaves him so far undisturbed that he can declare the growth of the modern State to be as yet unfinished, and assert that "there is fortunately no sure sign, even in our most highly developed States, that decay is as yet setting in."

The fundamental questions raised by Socialism were taken rather less seriously thirty years ago, when Freeman wrote his account of Federal Government, and the two additions, now published for the first time, were written in the early sixties. It is perhaps useless to speculate about changes which he might have made in the book, had he ever returned in his later years to the problems of Federal Government. He may well have been deterred from the attempt by remembering what odds were against his earlier work. He had planned an extensive publication which was to portray the Federal Republic as a system "intermediate between the city-commonwealth, which sacrifices everything else to the full development of the individual citizen, and the great modern kingdom, which sacrifices everything else to the peace, order, and general well-being of an extensive territory." But when his first volume was finished, the civil war in America had just reached its most uncertain point, and "the affair of the *Trent*," which was still unsettled, confirmed Englishmen in any prejudices they might have against Federal Government. Accordingly, by way of being fair in argument, he assumes everywhere that the disruption of the American Union is certain of accomplishment, and his general title contained the words, "from the formation of the Achaian League to the disruption of the United States of America."

Had our author lived long enough to return to the favorite theme of his youth, he would doubtless have qualified his statement that "the reason of the case would lead us to expect that the members of a league from which one or more members have seceded, would be less anxious to retain them, at all events less ready to make great sacrifices to retain them by force, than either a monarch or his subjects will be to recover a revolted province." To-day it no longer "remains to be seen whether the people of the Northern States will be ready to endure so prolonged a struggle for the forcible reduction of their revolted brethren as Spain, or even England, endured for the forcible reduction of their revolted dependencies." The modern federal tie has proved a stronger one than its apologist of thirty years ago dared hope; the quasi-federal status of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales is in a fair way towards restoration. All this seems to show that the "consolidated" modern State is transforming itself into something akin to Federalism. We may well ask, therefore, if Prof. Freeman can have been right in saying: "Probably no two constitutions produced at such a distance of time and place from one another ever presented so close a resemblance to each other as that which exists between the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of the Achaian League." The clear conception of a specific difference between the City-State of antiquity and the modern consolidated State of which every one of the United States is a modified but real example, coupled with the reflection that the members of the Achæan League were City-States, vitiates the analogy which Freeman has insisted upon between ancient Leagues and modern Republics. Whatever parallels our historian may draw between Assemblies, Senates, and Congresses, however freely he may use of ancient Leagues terms to which modern federal republics alone have given their present meaning, the result of the American war remains, and we now know that the modern federal tie has strength which defeats calculations and defies argument. The American citizen has given unmistakable proofs of something hardly to be distinguished from "that burning patriotism which the Athenian or the Florentine felt for the city in which his whole political and personal being found its home."

Under these altered circumstances our chief concern with Achæan institutions is confined to the question whether or not they were copied by the framers of our Constitution. No one has ever maintained that they were, and we may accordingly proceed to the reflection that the Arcadian and the Ætolian Leagues—prototypes in Greece—sprang up in the backwoods as it were, among primitive villages where the organization of the City-State was achieved very late and most imperfectly. The process was a long one which brought such leagues to the forefront in Greece. Athens, Sparta, and Thebes had first to live out all the life of real initiative that there was among Greeks. We may yet learn from the march of modern and contemporary events to qualify the one statement about the Achæan League in which all authorities, including both of the authors under consideration, now agree—namely, that it was what the Germans call a *Bundesstaat* rather than a *Staatenbund*. It is quite possible to maintain that political organization moved a step backwards when the Ætolian and Achæan Leagues came to the front. Worn out by centuries of petty wars among neighbors, and generations of hateful strife among factions, the City-State required in Greece a period of backwardness and political nothingness before it could gather strength for the final reconstitution which brought it safely beyond its own limitations, and fashioned in Greece such an approach to the more extensive and complex modern State as a Roman province now appears to have been.

The Memories of Dean Hole. Second edition. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. xii, 377. Illustrated.

'The Memories of Dean Hole' has come to a cheap edition, which shows that the book is popular. It owes its popularity largely, we should think, to a pervading geniality of man-

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ner, which, to the credit of human nature, always takes, even if it be a little overstrained. The Dean is evidently an excellent specimen of a class of ecclesiastics which only the Established Church of England could produce. Slight affinities may be traced in the French abbé or curé of the old school, and possibly in the "live man" of our American churches. But fox hunting and cricket-playing England alone possesses the genuine breed.

The Dean's ideal of clerical character and his theory of his own position are given in these words:

"A good man, wherever he goes with a good purpose, will communicate goodness; for virtue, thank Heaven, is a thousand times more impressive for good than vice is infectious for evil. Clergymen must not be hermits, but rather in the world though not of it; all things to all men, that they may save some. Great harm is done by their absence from those places and pastimes in which laymen see nothing immoral or irreligious, and the latter resent it, as suggesting the evil which they do not find. Moreover, it confirms the hurtful notion that the clergy are wanting in manliness, and is used as an argument by those who rejoice to disparage and to denounce us as 'a lot of old women.'"

The Dean has been an enthusiastic fox-hunter and cricketer, keeping up both sports after he had taken orders. He avows that if he were a Bishop, and the question were put to him by a "priest" whether it was right for a clergyman to hunt, his answer would be that it was, provided the priest had the time and the money and would ride *straight to hounds;* if he heard of the priest's "craning and shirking," he would withdraw the permission. Archery is comparatively ecclesiastical, and rose-growing, for which the Dean is famous, still more so. He would be sorry to hear, he says, that the ecclesiastical element was banished from the chase, because its participation contradicts the impression that parsons lose their virility on taking holy orders. He even flatters himself that he "drew," more as a clergyman from having been seen on the hunting-field.

Not only fox-hunting but the turf receives the Dean's approbation, qualified by a pious proviso against betting and black-legging, which is about as effectual as a proviso as that the devil shall not be black. His principal associations—those, at least, about which he tells us most—were with the *Punch* set and literary men of the cognate circle, whose conversation probably did not often turn on theology and whose habits are not likely to have been ascetic. He does not mind letting us know that in his youth he gambled, and once at Paris lost a large sum, from the payment of which, however, he escaped, owing to the notorious character of the men with whom he lost it. He has certainly been "in the world," and must sometimes, as when enjoying an evening with Douglas Jerrold and Mark Lemon, or riding straight to hounds, have found it difficult not to be "of the world."

On the other hand, he appears to have been an excellent parish clergyman, exemplary in the performance of all his duties. He has been a Select Preacher before the University of Oxford, and has risen at last to the highest grade but one in the profession. With his geniality, his good sense, his popularity, and his prestige as a rider and batsman he has no doubt been an extremely useful element in English country life, done something to keep society, even society of a rather boisterous kind, decent, and, by "being all things to all men," succeeded in "saving some." He has the satisfaction of stating that a huntsman once apologized for having in his presence damned the horn of the master of the hunt. He has been, in short, a not inconsiderable grain of the salt of the earth. To assign his exact position in the spiritual world is not easy. It is needless to say he is a High Churchman. He sympathizes moderately with the Oxford Movement, reveres our "solemn and beautiful Liturgy," cherishes the Rubric of Edward VI. permitting the use of pontificals, though he doubts the expediency of taking advantage of it, and steers a judicious middle course on the subject of what the high-flying Anglicans now frankly call the Mass. He styles himself a Catholic Priest, without the slightest suspicion of incongruity in the picture of a Catholic priest "riding straight to hounds." All the other churches of Christendom, we repeat, may be challenged to produce his counterpart.

Of the remarkable characters whom the Dean has known, he has most to tell us about Leech, of whom he relates several anecdotes, none of which seems to us so good as Leech's rough sketches, facsimiles of three or four of which are given. There are, however, some amusing stories in the book. Here is one which the Dean heard from an eye-witness:

"In a London home it was the custom to place a foot-warmer, before the repast began, in front of the chair of the hostess, who was chilly and infirm from old age. On this occasion the guests were early, or the footman was late, and the latter was still under the table when the former took their seats. The lady of the house became conscious of some motive power below, and, thinking that it came from a favorite retriever, who was allowed to roam where it pleased, fondly addressed it as 'Rollo, good Rollo!' and, failing to hear the protest, 'It's not Rollo, grandmamma—it's Alfred,' affectionately patted the head as it emerged from the table, with a halo of powder and an expression of perplexity which Leech himself could not have copied."

Readers will laugh, too, at the boy in the Church school who, on being asked what sign Peter gave of repentance, replied, "He crowed thrice"; and at the farmer who, at the rent-dinner at Belvoir, being served with some rich liqueur, smacked his lips and, turning to the footman behind him, said, "Young man, if you've no objection, I'll tak' some o' that in a moog."

The Recrudescence of Leprosy, and its Causation. By William Tebb. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

THIS good-sized volume may be likened to a cry out of the wilderness—one is tempted to say out of the wilderness of ignorance, but that would not be a fair saying in all respects. It is freely admitted by those who know anything of the subject that leprosy, which at one time was a widespread scourge in Europe, and which isolation rendered practically extinct there, is now advancing up the line of diseases, and in some parts of the world is a very serious plague. In Minnesota and Louisiana at home, and in New Brunswick on our borders, there are formidable groups of such cases. It was taken to the Sandwich Islands along with other fatal gifts of the life-destroying whites, and there it is a deadly cloud from which distress and suffering constantly flow. It is in the West Indies, not indigenous but imported; it has overshadowed the East Indies from an immemorial time, and, with the contraction of the earth's surface under the pressure of increasing intercommunication, it is advancing into regions hitherto exempt. All this may be admitted, and it is very well that there is a public warning.

Nearly twenty years ago the discovery by Hansen of the *bacillus leprœ* brought leprosy within the category of specific diseases, and gave a logical basis for the popular opinion of its communicability. It is not contagious in the sense that smallpox and scarlet fever are; it is as typically inoculable as another more widely spread disease. Its inheritance has been doubted, but as the bacilli are sometimes found in the blood as well as at the exterior seats of the disease, there is no reason why there may not be hereditary lepers. Its ordinary spread is the step-by-step one of inoculation. Whether that inoculation is accidental, as in the reported cases of pricking by a fish-hook polluted by lepers; or incidental, as in the daily contact of domestic life; or unintentional but extrinsic, as in the use of infected instruments, inoculation is the usual determining cause. If all the lepers could be kept in seclusion, non-intercourse would free the world of the disease. For reasons too numerous and too complicated to detail here, that is impracticable. Then, deliberate and presumptive although undesigned inoculation must be guarded against. And here is the key to this book. While he does not use exactly those words, the author evidently believes vaccination to be a device of the adversary, and full of evil, and especially efficient as a maker of lepers. It is not at all impossible that the inoculation of humanized vaccine directly from the arm may also be the occasion of the inoculation of leprosy. In fact, it may be admitted that that has occurred, that it may continue to occur, and that there is a widespread fear of such vaccination in leprous countries on that account; and the logical deduction is that the utmost precaution should be used in determining the character of the virus.

The account of the spread of leprosy in various parts of the world corresponds sufficiently with known scientific data to be accepted in a general way, and in that respect this popular treatise is an addition to popular knowledge. But the true object of this book is not to proclaim the rise or fall of leprosy, but to denounce vaccination. The alleged subject is a side issue. The real kernel and essence of the whole is condemnation of "the Jennerian cultus," as the doctrine of vaccination is designated. In so far as this book shows, as we think it does, that leprosy is increasing and that one of its modes of distribution is through improperly selected vaccine virus, it is commendable. But it would be more commendable were it addressed to the profession charged with the function of antagonizing smallpox, and not to the general public, whom it may fill with unreasoning fear. But when, going beyond the subject of leprosy, it holds that vaccination does not prevent smallpox, and that it is itself a disease more to be dreaded than that against which it is directed, and therefore that it should be abolished, it exhibits ignorance and prejudice combined in such proportions as quite to disqualify the author from expressing a competent opinion. Whatever may be the actual origin of the true vaccine lymph, concerning which there is dispute, there is no real doubt of the immense value of the practice introduced by Edward Jenner, or that it practically accomplishes what is claimed for it. A serious advocate of the abolition of vaccination is a physical anarchist.

Les Fabliaux. Par Joseph Bédier. Paris: Bouillon.

THIS important and erudite work forms part of the publications of the École des Hautes Études, issued under the auspices of the Ministry of Public Instruction. Such a testimonial

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to its worth is deserved. M. Bédier is one of the younger scholars trained by M. Gaston Paris. The latter looks with particular favor upon the writer and his work, although M. Bédier controverts some of the positions held by his teacher. The book is a mass of information, well-ordered, clearly set out, and covering very thoroughly the ground the author has selected. It is likely to attract much attention from students of folk-lore in general, M. Bédier taking a stand in opposition to the most universally adopted systems which seek to explain the genesis of popular tales. He holds neither with the Orientalists, who bring back all tales to Eastern originals, nor with the anthropologists. In his opinion—and he backs it with much solid fact—the influence of the East has been very greatly overrated; impartial investigation fails to find sufficient grounds for declaring that India is "the reservoir, the source, the matrix, the motherland of folk-lore." No more, he affirms, is true than this: "India has produced great collections of tales and has propagated a large number of these both orally and in writing."

He does not admit that certain tales, found in many different countries, must necessarily have had a common origin, much less that that origin must have been Eastern. It is impossible, he contends, to know anything of the origin or of the method of propagation of such stories, among which he includes "the vast majority of popular tales, almost all the fabliaux and fables, and nearly all fairy tales." As far as France is concerned, he finds only a small number of folk-tales traceable, not always clearly, to an Oriental origin. For one class of tales only does he admit the possibility of tracing the origin by internal evidence: it is that which comprises what he terms ethnic tales—that is, those which bear plain marks of a particular race or nationality. These ethnic tales are the peculiar property of the race which has invented them; they cannot belong to any other, and it is comparatively easy to trace them back to their sources. But as no race has a monopoly of the invention of tales, M. Bédier contends that many similar tales may have arisen and did arise in different countries, and are the common patrimony of many nations.

At first sight it may appear that M. Bédier has merely set out to overthrow two or three systems in which he does not believe, and that he has nothing to offer in the place of that which he says must be taken away. This is not a just view either of what he has proposed to himself or of what he has accomplished. He does present a new theory, simple, it is true, but which bears examination and application well; if it proves a better method in the examination of folklore, his object is attained; if, on the other hand, the Orientalist system prevails over his attacks, he will have done it a real service, for it is certain that the system has many weak points, not the least of which is its arbitrariness. In any case, all interested in folklore will find it necessary to read M. Bédier's work, to weigh carefully his arguments, and to note the numerous facts he adduces in support of his views.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, T. K. First and Second Latin Books. Revised. American Book Co. $1.
Ballantyne, R. M. The Walrus Hunters. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Cox, Palmer. The Brownies at Home. Century Co. $1.50.
D'Araujo, Oscar. L'Idée Républicaine au Brésil. Paris: Perrin & Cie.
Edwards, G. W. Thumb-nail Sketches. Century Co.
Foster, A. J., and Cuthell, E. E. The Robber Baron of Bedford Castle. T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
Greenough, Prof. J. B., and Peck, Prof. Tracy. Livy, Books XXI. and XXII. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Harland, Marion. My Little Love. G. W. Dillingham. 25 cents.
Japp, A. H. Hours in my Garden. Macmillan. $1.75.
King's Handbook of New York City. 2d ed. Boston: Moses King. $2.

READY:

De Quincey's Joan of Arc and the English Mail Coach. Edited, with Biographical Introduction and Notes, by JAMES MORGAN HART of Cornell University. xxvi+138 pp. 16mo. boards. *Teachers' price, 30 cents; postage 4 cents additional.*

These essays are at once attractive to the novice in literary study, and fairly representative of the author's work in two notable phases. The editor has directed his efforts mainly to indicating the lessons De Quincey's style is so admirably adapted to impress upon the young writer.

Verne's Michel Strogoff. Abridged, with *Summaries of Omitted Passages and Notes for Beginners*, by EDWIN S. LEWIS, Ph.D., of Princeton University. vii+122 pp. 16mo, cloth. Teachers' price, 70 cents; postage 6 cents additional.

This story combines, for the purpose of a first reader, simple diction, high ethical tone, and intense and sustained interest. The required brevity has been secured mainly by excising descriptive passages, any gaps thus created being bridged by short summaries. The book *can be begun as soon as the regular verb is reached*, irregular forms being referred to the tables of principal parts at the end of the volume. Subjunctives are carefully treated in a separate classified list. The notes abound in references to the grammars most generally used.

Joynes's Minimum French Grammar and Reader. By EDWARD S. JOYNES of South Carolina College. vi+269 pp. Cloth. Teachers' price, 75 cents; postage 6 cents additional.

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